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ABSTRACT

This resource guide is designed to assist administrators and teachers of limited-English-proficient (LEP) migrant students. A section on students' rights highlights key federal legislation, court rulings, and administrative regulations addressing language-minority students and the legal responsibilities of educational agencies serving them. The guide explains administrative responsibilities in terms of registering, placing, and serving LEP students. A section for teachers with LEP students describes strategies such as total physical response, cooperative learning, language experience, reading aloud, shared reading, process writing, and language learning in the content areas. A section on assessment provides some suggestions for getting started on assessing the language proficiency of migrant students. The guide offers general guidelines and strategies for cross-cultural education. It also suggests ways to involve parents of migrant children in their child's schooling. The resource section contains lists and descriptions of resource organizations, suggested materials for students and teachers, sources of English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) materials, federal education programs for LEP students, and a glossary of second language education terms. It also contains additional readings on ESL programs, sheltered English instruction, grade retention, collaboration, and ESL teacher education. The text is preceded by an ERIC digest on the topic of helping new LEP students. (KS)

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ED 372 891

HELP!
They Don't Speak English Starter Kit

for Administrators

The HELP Starter Kit
is a
resource guide
for
educators of
limited English proficient migrant students

1994

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

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ESCORT would like to acknowledge the contributions of Pam Wrigley for her efforts in the revision of this kit which can now be utilized by educators throughout the country for all limited English proficient migrant children.

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Bugbee Hall - Room 305
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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Limited-English-Proficient Students in The Schools: Helping the Newcomer

Prepared by Terry Corasaniti Dale

December, 1986

At The Beginning: Helping The Newcomer

In the 1980's, there is hardly a school in the United States which has not enrolled some number of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students. Administrators and teachers throughout the country are striving to meet the challenge of integrating these students from the beginning into the social and academic life of their schools.

LEP students and their parents need a network of support to familiarize them with school routines, to help them understand and comply with school rules and regulations, to help them take advantage of many school-related services and, ultimately, to successfully follow their designated course of study. There are a number of ways in which schools can provide such a network to make the transition to schooling in the United States easier.

What Administrators Can Do

One of the most important things administrators can do is to ensure that information about new LEP students is available to all school personnel, parents and students. As the "hub" of the information network, principals, counselors and office personnel should:

1. Have available names of interpreters who can be called on to help register students; to work with counselors and teachers in explaining school rules, grading systems and report cards; and to help when students are called in for any kind of problem or in case of an emergency. Many school systems have a list of such interpreters which is kept in the central office. A school can augment this list or start its own with local business people, senior citizens, college professors, students, and parents who are bilingual and who are available before, during or after school hours. Responsible students who are bilingual can also serve as interpreters when appropriate.

2. Have available for all teachers a list of LEP students that includes information on country of origin and native language, age, the last grade attended in the home country, current class assignments and any and all information available about the students' academic background. Since new LEP students are enrolled in school throughout the year, updated lists should be disseminated periodically. School staff who are kept aware of the arrival of new LEP students can prepare themselves and their students to welcome children from different language and cultural backgrounds.

How The School Staff Can Help

The most important and challenging task facing schools with LEP students is finding expedient ways to integrate new LEP students into the academic activities of the school. In most cases, it is nearly impossible for schools to know in advance how many LEP students will enroll from year to year or to foresee what level of academic skills students will bring with them. Nevertheless, school staff need to have a set of well-planned procedures for placing students in the appropriate classroom, as well as procedures for developing instructional plans, many of which must be developed on an individual student basis. School administrators should provide staff with the time and resources to accomplish this. The following activities are suggested:

1. Assess students' level of skills (including reading and mathematics) in their native language.

2. Assess students' English language proficiency, including listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. [It should be noted here that many school systems with large numbers of LEP students often have a center where all initial assessment is done and from where the information may be sent on to the receiving school. Schools in systems which do not have such "in-take" centers must complete student evaluation themselves.]

3. When class schedules are devised (particularly in intermediate and secondary school), schedule slots for classes where LEP students can be grouped for intensive, special classes in English as a second language and mathematics. LEP students should not be isolated for the entire school day; however, at least in the very beginning, the grouping of students according to English language proficiency or academic skills levels is essential. This is

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particularly true for schools with small numbers of LEP students scattered throughout grade levels. Planning ahead for such special groupings avoids disrupting schedules during the school year. The participation of school principals and counselors in this process is essential.

4. Conduct regular information discussion sessions with the school staff and resource people who know something about the students' languages, cultures, and school systems in the various countries of origin. Many schools schedule monthly luncheon sessions where staff who are working in the classroom with the same LEP students may meet and compare notes. Such discussions usually focus on appropriate instructional approaches to be used with LEP students, or how to interpret student behaviors or customs that are unfamiliar to the teacher. These sessions can be invaluable since they may constitute the only time that staff have the opportunity to consult one another, in addition to outside sources, on issues that are vitally important to classroom success.

What Students Can Do

A support network for LEP students is complete only when all students are included and allowed to help in some way. One way to involve the student body is to set up a "buddy system" which pairs new students with students not new to the system. Where possible, LEP students may be paired with responsible students who speak their native language. These student teams go through the school day together so that the newcomers may learn school routines from experienced peers who have gone through the adjustment period themselves.

New LEP students may also be paired with native English-speaking peers. In this way, LEP students begin to learn survival English at the same time that they are getting to know other students in the school. As tutors, student "buddies" may help newcomers with academic work, especially in classes where extra teacher help is not consistently available.

Teachers should initially establish buddy systems in their own classrooms, but student organizations, such as the student council, foreign language clubs, or international student groups can help maintain the systems.

A Final Note: Working Together

Administrators and teachers should encourage LEP students and their parents to participate in social and academic activities. A good way to get them started is to invite them to talk about the history, geography, literature and customs of their home countries in class. Such presentations should be a planned part of the curriculum throughout the year.

Many schools also plan special school assemblies (or even an entire day) to celebrate the cultural diversity of the student body or to spotlight outstanding work done by LEP students. Many other activities may be initiated which give LEP students and their English-speaking peers opportunities to interact and work together.

Schools which see LEP students and their families as rich sources of first-hand information about life in other countries and cultures are very often the most successful in helping LEP students to become productive, contributing members of the school community.

Resources

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education is a federally-funded center which provides information on programs, instructional materials, research and other resources related to the education of LEP students. The Clearinghouse can also provide information on additional networks of federally-funded centers that serve school districts with LEP students. Eligibility for free technical assistance from these centers varies according to funding priorities. For information, write or call:

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
11501 Georgia Avenue, Suite 102
Wheaton, MD 20902
(301)933-9448, or 800-647-0123

For Further Reading

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STUDENTS' RIGHTS

UNDER FEDERAL LAW

STUDENTS' RIGHTS UNDER FEDERAL LAW*

This synopsis highlights key legislation, court rulings, and administrative regulations addressing language minority students and the legal responsibilities of educational agencies serving them.

A comprehensive discussion of the laws and rulings cited here can be found in *Legal Responsibilities of Educational Agencies Serving National Origin Language Minority Students.***

As part of a national effort to secure equal educational opportunities for all American students, the three branches of federal government have acted during the last two decades to protect the rights of national origin minority students and those who are limited in English proficiency. A substantial body of federal law has emerged which establishes the rights of language minority students and defines the responsibilities of school districts serving them. This body of law has changed significantly in its scope and interpretation and continues to evolve.

Those who are responsible for state and local education policies and programs can turn for guidance and direction to these laws and regulations. By doing so, they can ensure that the ever-increasing numbers of national origin minority students they serve are provided with the educational opportunities guaranteed by a democratic society.

Federal Laws

1868- *Constitution of the United States, Fourteenth Amendment*

"...No State shall...deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

1964- *Civil Rights Act, Title VI*

"No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color, or national origin...be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance."

1974- *Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA)*

"No state shall deny equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex or national origin, by...the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs."

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**Lyons, James J. *Legal Responsibilities of Educational Agencies Serving Language Minority Students.* (1988). Mid-Atlantic Equity Center, School of Education, The American University, 5010 Wisconsin Avenue, N. W., Suite 310, Washington, D. C. 20016

COURT RULINGS

Supreme Court

1974 -- *Lau v. Nichols*

In a unanimous decision, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that:

- Equality of educational opportunity is not achieved by merely providing all students with "the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; [because] students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education."

- The Office for Civil Rights (U.S. Department of Education) has the authority to establish regulations for compliance with the 1964 Civil Rights Act.

1982 -- *Plyler v. Doe*

The Supreme Court ruled that the Fourteenth Amendment prohibits states from denying a free public education to undocumented immigrant children regardless of their immigrant status. The Court emphatically declared that school systems are not agents for enforcing immigration law, and determined that the burden undocumented aliens may place on an educational system is not an accepted argument for excluding or denying educational service to any student.

Federal Courts

1974 -- *Serna v. Portales*

The 10th Circuit Court of Appeals found "undisputed evidence that Spanish surnamed students do not reach the achievement levels attained by their Anglo counterparts."

The Court ordered Portales Municipal Schools to design an educational plan which addressed national origin minority students' needs by implementing a bilingual and bicultural curriculum, revising testing procedures to assess achievement in that curriculum, and recruiting and hiring bilingual school personnel.

1978 -- *Cintron v. Brentwood*

The Federal District Court for the Eastern District of New York rejected the Brentwood School District's plan to restructure its bilingual program, finding that the proposed plan "kept [Spanish-speaking students] separate and apart from English speaking students in music and art in violation of the 'Lau Guidelines'."

The program also failed to provide for exiting students whose English language proficiency would enable them to understand regular English instruction.

FACT SHEET -- OCR POLICY UPDATE ON SCHOOLS' OBLIGATIONS TOWARD NATIONAL ORIGIN MINORITY STUDENTS WITHLIMITED-ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

Purpose of the Policy Update

Q Why is this issue important?

A: Without special language assistance, an estimated two million limited English proficient students from a wide variety of ethnic and racial backgrounds may not have meaningful access to their schools' programs. In his AMERICA 2000 strategy, the President calls for meeting the educational needs of all students.

Q Why is OCR involved in this area?

A: OCR is responsible for enforcing Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin in programs or activities that receive Federal financial assistance. OCR has interpreted Title VI to require that school districts "take affirmative steps to rectify (English) language deficiencies which have the effect of excluding national origin minority children from participation in the educational program offered." In Lau v. Nichols, 414 U. S. 563 (1974), the Supreme Court upheld this interpretation of Title VI.

Q What is the purpose of the policy update?

A: The policy update is designed to provide additional guidance to our regional offices about what schools must do to comply with Title VI. This policy update does not change OCR's policy under Title VI.

Acceptable Alternative Language Programs

Q Must school districts use a particular type of alternative language program, such as transitional bilingual education or English as a Second Language, to comply with Title VI?

A: No. Districts may use any program that is recognized as sound by some experts in the field or is considered a legitimate experimental strategy. Examples of such programs include transitional bilingual education, bilingual/bicultural education, structured immersion, developmental bilingual education, and English as a Second Language.

Q Has a school district satisfied its responsibilities under Title VI once it chooses an appropriate alternative language program?

A: No. The district must also carry out the program properly and provide the teachers and resources necessary for the program to succeed. In addition, the school district must modify its program if, after a legitimate trial, it does not succeed in enabling LEP students to overcome their language barriers. As a practical matter, school districts will be unable to comply with this requirement without periodically evaluating their programs.

Staffing Requirements

Q What sort of qualifications must teachers in a bilingual education program have?

A: Teachers of bilingual classes must be able to speak, read, and write both languages and they should have received adequate instruction in the methods of bilingual education. They must also be fully qualified to teach the subject matter of the bilingual courses. In addition, the school district must be able to show that it has determined that its bilingual education teachers have the required skills.

Q If a school district uses a program other than bilingual education, what sort of qualifications must the program's teachers have?

A: The program's teachers must have received adequate training in the specific teaching methods required by that program. This training can take the form of in-service training, formal college coursework, or a combination of the two. The district should ensure, through testing and classroom observation, that teachers have actually mastered the skills necessary to teach in the program successfully.

Q How can a school district comply with Title VI if qualified teachers for its program are unavailable?

A: First, a district should be prepared to describe the efforts it has made to hire qualified teachers. If qualified teachers are temporarily unavailable, the district must require its teachers to work toward obtaining formal qualifications. In addition, the district must ensure that those teachers receive sufficient interim training to enable them to function adequately in the classroom, as well as any assistance they may need from bilingual aides that may be necessary to carry out the district's interim program.

Q Can LEP students be taught solely by bilingual aides?

A: No. Bilingual aides must work under the direct supervision of qualified classroom teachers. LEP students should not be receiving instruction from aides rather than teachers.

Q What qualifications must bilingual aides meet?

A: To the extent that the district's chosen educational program requires native language support, and if the district relies on bilingual aides to provide such support, the district should be able to demonstrate that it has determined that its aides have the appropriate level of skill in speaking, reading, and writing both languages. Aides at the kindergarten and first grade level, however, need not demonstrate reading and writing proficiency.

<u>Exit Criteria for Language Minority LEP Students</u>

Q When can a school district exit a student from an alternative language program?

A: Students may not be exited from an alternative language program unless they can read, write, and comprehend English well enough to participate meaningfully in the district's regular program. Exit criteria that simply measure a student's oral language skills are inadequate. The district's exit criteria should be based on objective standards, such as test scores, and the district should be able to explain why students meeting those criteria will be able to participate meaningfully in the regular classroom.

Q If a school district elects to emphasize English over other subjects when LEP students first enroll, does the district have any obligation to provide special instruction to the students once they learn English well enough to function in the regular classroom?

A: Yes. While schools with such programs may discontinue special instruction in English once LEP students become English-proficient, schools must provide the assistance necessary to remedy academic deficiencies that may have occurred in other subjects while the student was focusing on learning English.

Gifted/Talented Programs

Q Can school districts refuse to consider admitting LEP students to gifted/talented programs?

A: No. If a district has a process for locating and identifying gifted/talented students, it must also locate and identify gifted/talented LEP students who could benefit from the program. Exclusion of LEP students from gifted/talented programs must be justified by the needs of the particular student or by the nature of the program.

OCR Compliance Activities

Q How does OCR ensure that school districts fulfill their obligations under Title VI?

A: OCR investigates complaints filed by indviduals or groups who believe that they, or others, have been subjected to discrimination. Even if no formal complaint has been filed, OCR can conduct compliance reviews of school districts to determine whether they are fulfilling their obligations under Title VI. In addition to conducting investigations, OCR provides technical assistance to state and local education agencies and program beneficiaries to inform them of their obligations and rights under Title VI. Technical assistance is provided using a variety of methods including on-site consultations, training, workshops, and meetings.

Q What happens if OCR finds that a school district's treatment of LEP students violates Title VI?

A: If OCR finds a Title VI violation, we try to negotiate a corrective action plan under which the district specifies the actions it will take to remedy the violation. If negotiations are successful, OCR issues a letter of findings detailing the Title VI violation and stating that the district has agreed to remedy the violation. We then monitor the district's actions to ensure that it has carried out the corrective action plan.

If OCR is unable to get the district to agree to a corrective action plan, we initiate formal enforcement activities which, after an administrative hearing, can lead to termination of all Federal financial assistance to the district unless the district agrees to remedy the Title VI violation.

Q Whom can we contact for information on how to file a complaint or obtain technical assistance?

A: You can call OCR at (202) 732-1213 to obtain the address and telephone number of the OCR regional office responsible for your area. The regional office will be able to give you specific information about filing a complaint or obtaining technical assistance.

ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES/ RECOMMENDATIONS

ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES

It should be understood that all children must attend school, regardless of their ability to produce a birth certificate, social security number, or immigration documentation. Meeting the requirements for school entry may be difficult for some migrant families. School personnel should assist in all ways necessary for timely school entrance.

Here are 10 of the most asked questions about serving migrant students:

1. WHAT IF A STUDENT HAS NO IMMUNIZATION RECORDS?

If the parents do not have the shot records available, the dates of immunization may be obtained by calling the previous school that the child attended. Occasionally, you will be referred to the former district's health department. Making this effort can greatly reduce a child's time spent unnecessarily out of school. If all else fails, begin the immunization series and/or contact your closest migrant program.

2. WHAT DO I DO IF A STUDENT DOES NOT HAVE A SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER?

Children may not be excluded from school because they do not have a social security number. Application forms to obtain social security numbers may be distributed, but the option of completing the forms should be left entirely to the children's parents. The school should use a school-generated student number for those children who cannot produce social security numbers.

3. WHAT IF A STUDENT HAS NO BIRTH CERTIFICATE?

Children may not be excluded from school because they do not have a birth certificate.

4. HOW DO I PLACE A LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENT?

Since our goal for these children is graduation, they should be placed in the grade which is age-appropriate. Holding them back, or placing them in lower grades are ill-advised strategies which do not help them to learn English more rapidly. Under any circumstances, learning English, especially in academic settings, takes many years. Once they are placed in their age-appropriate grade, a special instructional plan must be devised for them.

Your first challenge is to determine how much English the children know. If the children use another language in their homes, they often need extra help with learning English. It is also helpful to find out how long a child has been attending school in the U.S. or in his/her native country. For example, if a child can read and write in Spanish, he/she will progress more rapidly in English. If a child has been in school in the U.S. for less than five years, he/she is likely to need special supplementary instruction.

4. (continued)

If you encounter a student with very little to no knowledge of English, attempt to find a qualified bilingual person promptly who can tutor the student at a beginning level of English. Your goal should be to integrate the LEP student as much as possible, and he/she may be placed immediately with his/her age group in activities such as P.E., Art or Music. For further information, see the section titled "Assessing Language Minority Students".

5. HOW CAN I LOCATE BILINGUAL STAFF?

They often show up just when you need them. Look in your school and community. At school, it may be a Spanish teacher, or a teacher who took language courses years back, or a bilingual student. In the community, they often can be found by spreading the word or through the local chapter of Literacy Volunteers. A word of caution: knowing the child's first language should not be the only criterion used in selecting an instructional assistant. A person with teaching experience and who is well-versed in ESL techniques would be a more effective instructor than a person with little experience who may not have a firm grasp of English.

6. HOW CAN I HELP MY TEACHERS MEET THE NEEDS OF LEP STUDENTS?

You can best help your teachers by being supportive and flexible; encouraging them to be creative in their approach to the LEP students' needs. This may require some shuffling of schedules, and perhaps freeing up a teacher who is bilingual and can work closely with the LEP students for part of the day. In this kit, you will find a number of pages and articles with helpful suggestions for your classroom teachers in the section titled: "Help for the Classroom Teacher".

7. HOW DO I COMMUNICATE WITH THE PARENTS OF MIGRANT STUDENTS?

Many migrant parents speak little or no English and may be very uncomfortable in the school setting. Communication is best accomplished in the home with the help of an interpreter. Interpreters can be friends, other family members, or older children. If an interpreter is able to accompany them, the parents are more likely to attend special events at school. Make sure that all important school information sent to non-English speaking parents is translated for them. If no opportunity exists for parent contact, call your closest migrant program for assistance.

8. HOW CAN WE MOST FAIRLY EVALUATE THE PROGRESS OF THE LEP STUDENTS?

This question has no easy answers. Many migrant students work very well on a par with their fellow students and need no special consideration. However, the students who have had little training in English cannot fairly be measured by standard criteria. Once again, creativity and flexibility are in order. You should encourage your teachers to have high expectations while continuing to modify and adapt their lessons and assignments for their students who are facing the extra hurdle of English.

Options for alternative grading systems include: 1) modifying existing report cards, 2) using S, S+, S- instead of A,B,C, 3) using N/A for certain subjects such as English and Spelling, and 4) anecdotal reports.

GETTING STARTED:
ADMINISTRATIVE RECOMMENDATIONS

There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education.

Basic English skills are at the very core of what these public schools teach. Imposition of a requirement that, before a child can effectively participate in the education program, he must already have acquired those basic skills is to make a mockery of public education. We know that those who do not understand English are certain to find their classroom experiences wholly incomprehensible and in no way meaningful. (Lau v. Nichols, 414 U.S. 563, 94 S. Ct. 786, 1974)

Learners of English in our school systems create unique opportunities for educators and students to learn about different cultures and languages. A diverse population also challenges educators to develop programs that afford opportunities for these students to succeed in school and reach their goals.

The initial contact between international families and school personnel is crucial in establishing an atmosphere of welcome and comfort in the new environment. Thus, training in the dynamics of diversity is a worthwhile endeavor for all school employees. This, of course, includes an awareness of personal values, attitudes, and beliefs.

"Homogenous groupings, based on culture and/or economic status, are rapidly diminishing. Therefore, we must have educators who are willing and able to develop and implement comprehensive and individualized curricula that build new learning on what the student already knows and thinks." (Pickles-Thomas, 1992, p. 54)

Successful multicultural education results from a school policy that celebrates a multicultural population, a curriculum that creates opportunities for success for students, and methods of instruction and staffing patterns that accommodate a diverse population. This requires a collaborative effort on the part of the school's administration, faculty, and auxiliary employees.

REGISTRATION PROCEDURES

Making students feel welcome is the first step in the registration process. Often, a school registrar or secretary is the first to greet the international family. These first representatives of the school can convey feelings of acceptance through their facial expressions, attitude, and nonverbal cues. They should be careful not to make assumptions or judgements about the student's background and English language proficiency since a wide range of internal diversity exists within each population.

Acquiring accurate, detailed information is essential to appropriate student placement. Effective communication skills and a consistent procedure for registering learners of English are key elements. If the parents are not fluent in English, they will usually be accompanied by an interpreter; however, you can prepare for a smooth registration procedure in the following ways:

- Have access to a cadre of trained interpreters or volunteers to ensure understanding of the registration procedure.
- Be sure to allow an adequate amount of time for the interpretation and the answering of questions.
- Have important registration and school information translated and given to the parents as "welcome packets" to be read at home since time is often limited during the interview.

A consistent registration procedure for learners of English facilitates their entry into the new school environment. It is vital to the orientation process to have school personnel who are trained and dedicated to meeting the needs of students from different cultures with different levels of English proficiency.

Steps in the Registration Process

1. Welcome the family to the school and conduct an interview with an interpreter, if necessary. Allow time for interpretation and questions. During the interview, give the family a card with the following information:
   - your name,
   - the name, address and telephone number of the school,
   - the classroom number, and/or
   - the ESOL teacher's name and room number,
   - pertinent bus information.
2. During the interview, complete a student profile form with the student's personal data, language background, and educational history.
3. Ask the parents to complete system registration forms and make copies of the students' previous school records and birth records.

4. Give parents a "welcome packet" written in their native language. This packet should include important registration and school information as well as a list of community resources, adult English language classes, and tutors. Explain basic school procedures such as:

   - ESOL services available in the school
   - Costs of meals and free/reduced lunch programs
   - Attendance
   - Immunization
   - School calendar
   - Transportation to and from school
   - Parent/teacher organization

5. Take the family on a tour of the school, if possible, and introduce them to the classroom teacher and/or ESOL teacher.

6. Assign to the learner of English a student helper either through the ESOL program or school clubs, (such as student council), to assist in the first few weeks of transition.

Additional Procedures for High School Students

1. Give the family a chart explaining the requirements for each type of diploma awarded in the state and the system regarding required and elective subjects.

3. Explain the awarding of credits, progress reports and semester grading periods.

We submit that teaching becomes easier when educators love, respect, and develop a cultural understanding of the children they teach (Pickles-Thomas, 1992, p. 54).

A person's name is an important part of his/her identity. Studies indicate that names affect how we function in life through their impact on our self-worth (Morrow, 1989). Unfortunately, many educators become confused and frustrated over pronunciation and cultural differences in the use of students' names. However, you should always try to find out how each national, cultural and ethnic group would like to be identified and respect the mode of identification that the student has chosen. Students are generally pleased to know that their teachers are interested enough in them to learn about their names. You will find that they are very cooperative in providing explanations and helping you pronounce their names properly. This will also help you to address their parents in the correct and respectful way, thus establishing a positive relationship between the school and home.

Use the following guidelines:

- Never make assumptions; always ask.
- The structure and use of names vary among cultural groups. For example, a Vietnamese family in Vietnam would write a family name first, then a middle name, and a given name last. However, some may already have changed to using the American system of writing their names before they come to the school. Always ask for the "family name" rather than the "last name."
- In many cultures, names have religious connotations and specific meanings which may be lost if you do not use the correct order or pronunciation of the name.
- Never arbitrarily give the student a new name. Names are individually unique and their use affects self-esteem. Use the students' names to create opportunities for the understanding and celebration of that part of a student's heritage.

Organizing for Instruction

TYPES OF LANGUAGE ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS

It is difficult from a statewide perspective to establish specific guidelines for determining the nature of programs designed for LEP students. Their numbers may vary from only a few students in some school divisions to several thousand in others. Therefore, decisions concerning the organization of the instructional programs should be made locally. However, it may prove useful for the decision makers to know the alternatives that are available to them.

Rarely is ESL a full-day program. Usually LEP students are engaged in part of the instructional program that is provided for general education students. Generally, the first experiences of LEP students with regular instruction should be in classes that are not conceptually or culturally different from their own experiences (art, physical education, mathematics, etc.) Two to four hours a day of special instruction in English should be provided for beginning and intermediate students.

Whatever organizational pattern is chosen, ESL instruction should be directly related to the content of other instruction, i.e., math, science, language arts, etc. Much communication and collaboration is needed between the instructional staff of the ESL program and the general education program.

Also, those experienced in ESL and bilingual education emphasize the importance of establishing firm objectives for what is to be accomplished. Even if a very few students are involved, this step should not be overlooked.

A Tutorial Approach

If only a few students are present, it is usually not feasible to offer anything more than tutorial instruction. More will be said about the instructional personnel later in this document; however, if an endorsed ESL teacher is not available, elementary classroom teachers or teachers of foreign languages, English, or reading are usually chosen to provide instruction. An aide or a volunteer, working under the direction of a professional employee, may be used to extend the services. Often a tutor can serve more than one student at a time without difficulty.

Any teacher used for tutoring ESL students should not be expected to provide this service as an extra responsibility to an already full-time job without appropriate adjustments being made in his or her schedule.

A Cluster or Center Approach

In some school divisions, a number of students are scattered among different schools and grade levels. A cluster or center approach is recommended in such instances. Students are brought together for classroom instruction in ESL. They are usually grouped by age or grade level; for example, students in K-3 or 9-12. Often, such students can be transported in buses used to carry special or vocational education students.

Classroom ESL Instruction in the Home School of the Students

Sometimes there are enough LEP students in a school to warrant one or more sections or classes of ESL instruction. Emphasis should be placed on the development of aural comprehension, oral production, and beginning reading and writing experiences in English.

High Intensity Language Training (HILT)

HILT is currently taught in schools where there is a large population of limited English proficient students with an influx of new students constantly replacing those leaving the program. HILT is designed for large numbers of students who are not proficient in English. It involves integrated language and content instruction, usually for at least three hours per day. The methodology may not differ from that used in any other ESL instructional program, but the intensity of instruction is greater and the time span is longer. Students enrolled in HILT programs also learn to use vocabulary, content, language, and academic skills and processes. The HILT program uses locally developed curricula which incorporate mainstream objectives, learning styles, and learning strategies.

Bilingual Education

In some sections of the country there are enough students of the more populous language groups to justify offering bilingual education. Bilingual education is provided concurrently with ESL instruction. Unless there is a large enough concentration of one linguistic group, it is difficult to implement a bilingual education program.

Recommended Hours of Daily Instruction:

Level	Daily Time Allotted
Pre-beginning	2-3 hrs.
Beginning	2-2.5 hrs.
Intermediate	1.5-2 hrs.
High Intermediate	1-1.5 hrs.
Advanced	1 hour

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Administrative Issues

Personnel for the Program

The ESL Specialist or Liaison

It is essential that someone from the central school administrative office be in charge of the services offered to LEP students for each school division. This individual is preferably a specialist in ESL or bilingual education but may be a generalist if the program is a small one. The ultimate responsibilities of this person are to see that students are identified and that an instructional program is provided for them. The identity of the person should be known to all personnel--classroom teachers, guidance counselors, and administrators--because these staff members may be the first to recognize the English limitations of LEP students.

The identification of LEP students differs greatly depending on the number of these students enrolled in a division. Divisions with many LEP students are accustomed to working with them and usually have formal intake procedures established. In the school divisions with smaller numbers of LEP students, the central office administrator must conduct a campaign among teachers and other administrators to assure that potential LEP students are identified and served. This person functions as a liaison for all concerned with the ESL or bilingual program: students, teachers, administrators, parents, the school board, and the community.

The ESL Teacher

Teachers should be selected, first of all, for their ability to communicate effectively with students and for being successful teachers. A sincere interest in and willingness to work with language minority students are qualities that help to insure success. Preferably they would have had some experience studying a foreign language, for the methodology and psychology of learning English as a Second Language are similar to the experience of American natives in studying a foreign language. The teachers must know English well, enunciate distinctly,, and communicate lucidly. Knowledge of the methodology of teaching reading is extremely helpful. The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) proposes that the preparation of instructional personnel for LEP students develop:

1. A thorough knowledge of the theory and practice of English as a Second Language and/or bilingual-bicultural education;
2. A genuine concern for the education of students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds;
3. Awareness of the various cultures reflected in the languages of the limited-English-speaking students;
4. A thorough knowledge of at least one language of the LEP students, including adequate control of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and the nonverbal aspects appropriate to the communication context;
5. An understanding of the basic concepts regarding the nature of language; the nature of bilingualism and the process of becoming bilingual; the structural differences between students' primary language and English, recognizing areas of potential interference and positive transfer; and theories of first-and second-language acquisition;
6. The ability to develop awareness in the learner of the values of cultural diversity; to assist students to interact successfully in a cross-cultural setting; to assist students to maintain and extend identification with pride in their mother culture; to know the effect of different cultures on students' learning styles (cognitive and affective) and on their general level of development and socialization;
7. The ability to assist students to maintain and extend command of the primary language and English; and to pursue various teaching techniques chosen according to the needs of the students and demands of the subject matter.
8. The ability to facilitate contacts and interaction between the student's home and the school.

Other Personnel

Volunteers are often used effectively in both large and small programs to supplement the professional staff. They should, of course, work under the direction of the professional personnel.

School divisions with large language populations frequently find it necessary to secure the services of bilingual/bicultural teachers, tutors, teaching assistants, psychologists, counselors, principals, and social workers. It is recommended that school divisions prepare a list of volunteers and community resource persons who are available on an "as needed" basis for the language groups represented in their school populations. These professionals serve as role models for language minority students and can communicate directly with them in their native language in often complex situations that may be sensitive and confidential.

A word of caution is given regarding the use of translators of official documents and interpreters for conferences in which a highly technical level of language may be needed and confidential information may be shared Translators and interpreters should be qualified and clearly understand their role beforehand. Students should not be used in these official roles. However, students may be called on for relaying basic information or for assisting in minor, everyday emergencies.

PLACING A STUDENT IN A CLASS OR AT AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL

What should you consider when placing a student?

Success and motivation are keys to effective instruction. So, remember that "limited English proficient" does not mean "limited thinking proficient". A ten-year-old student may speak very little English, but she may also have the experience, interests, and maturity of a fourth grader. Limited English proficient students should be placed in a grade level which is appropriate according to their educational level, experience and age. An LEP student should not be automatically placed in a lower grade because he/she does not speak English. When placing students you will want to consider all the information available to you, including:

Student Factors

- the extent and continuity of previous education
- interests and maturity
- language proficiency in English and the student's home language
- degree of home support for second language learning
- test scores

Teacher Factors

- empathy for the limited English proficient migrant student
- knowledge of the language acquisition process
- cross-cultural skills
- flexibility in teaching, modifying lessons and assessment procedures
- proficiency in the student's home language and willingness to work with students
- willingness to work with migrant parents who may speak little or no English

Scheduling Options

Physical education, art, and music teachers usually use language in highly contextualized ways. That is, they model, act out, gesture, show diagrams and pictures, or ask other students to show what is expected from the class. For this reason, these classes are excellent classes in which the limited English student can learn English with his/her age peers in a low stress environment. Consider placing your limited English proficient students with their age mates in these classes even if you place them at a lower level for Reading tor Social Studies.

How can you determine appropriate placement for limited English proficient students?

This is a complex and very important question because placement affects a student's self esteem, motivation, and general sense of belonging in your school. No test will answer this question for you. You will need a wide variety of information (see above) to make an informed decision. Your best bet is to convene a team of informed professionals to make the decision together. Above all, allow yourself the flexibility to change things as a student grows or when a particular placement does not work out.

PLACEMENT OF SECONDARY LEVEL LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

After registering secondary-level learners of English, you will have to schedule them into their six classes. This can be quite difficult because you will have to deal with time constraints, scheduling conflicts, and limited course offerings that are appropriate for learners of English. Because of interruptions in their educations, some students are already older than grade level peers. They have a limited amount of time to meet requirements for graduation, so appropriate placement in classes for these students requires careful attention. Your ability to recommend scheduling quickly and effectively will grow as you work with students and their school records from other countries and become familiar with community agencies and resource material.

Assessment

- First, assess learners of English for ESOL placement to determine the level and number of scheduled ESOL periods each day. Accompany this assessment with informal testing in English conversation and writing which gives an indication of the student's ability to succeed in certain classes.

- Assess mathematical skill with caution. Instructions written in English and variations in mathematical symbols may interfere with assessment of actual math skills. Math teachers can be helpful in determining math placement.

Choice of Courses

Use the results of the assessment of English and math skills, information on the student's educational background information and student goals to make course selection suggestions. For beginning level learners, avoid courses that require a high level of English proficiency such as social studies, biology, geometry and language arts, if possible. Electives such as physical education and art along with a required math course are usually safe choices for these students.

Sheltered Content Courses

Adding sheltered content courses to the curriculum creates additional class offerings for intermediate- and advanced-level learners of English who are ready to begin more challenging coursework (see section on adding sheltered courses). These classes focus on the ability and learning style of each student. In setting up these courses:

- Choose staff members for these classes carefully. Their abilities and personalities should facilitate their work with learners of English. "The most important factor influencing academic achievement is teacher expectations. In this regard, teachers' attitudes are significant because they must respect the students they teach in order to develop high academic and social expectations for them" (Pickles-Thomas, 1992, p. 54).

- Remember that the methods used in the classroom must change to meet the students' needs, but this does not mean that the content of the material has to be watered down.

Adjusting Placement

All school staff should be aware of the special needs of the learner of English and understand that initial placement in classes is not always accurate. They should allow sufficient time for the students to adjust before making recommendations for changes. Teachers who are flexible and understanding have a positive influence on the student's chances for success in the new school environment.

Follow-up

The process of adjustment to the new culture does not end with appropriate placement in school courses. Conflicts with life-styles, values, beliefs, and communication skills create an on-going need for an established support system to assist immigrant and refugee students and their parents.

Administrators, counselors, and teachers need to take part in this support network. Being aware of the needs of the learner of English is not enough. Awareness requires action by administration in the form of policy development, curriculum changes and staffing adjustments. Counselors can offer support by organizing international student and parent groups that meet throughout the year, involving parents and community agencies in school related activities, advising students in academic matters, and counseling students regarding personal concerns. Teachers can increase personal understanding of different cultures, try different methods of instruction, and foster an appreciation of the heritages and traditions of international students in the classroom.

GRADE RETENTION/ A COMMON YET MISGUIDED OPTION

Description of the Problem

Statistics show that very few migrant students graduate at age 20, and almost none have graduated at older than 20 (Bigler and Ludovina, 1982). Therefore, any child who is placed two or more years below his/her grade level is virtually doomed to drop out of school. Even one year, with the added possibility of losing another year because of migrancy or credit loss in the upper grades dooms a child to dropping out.

Why are Migrants Older than Their Peers?

- They look young (are small)
- The family members do not speak English and do not protest the placement
- The school personnel think that they will learn English faster in lower grades
- The students have never or rarely attended school
- The students or parents inform the school of the last grade attended (which may not be equivalent, or may reflect a year of traveling, or sporadic schooling)
- The schools group migrant children with other migrant or LEP students

The Story of Maria Gutierrez

Surely you have or will face the dilemna of where to place and whether to promote your migrant students. See if you recognize Maria:

Maria Gutierrez is being retained in kindergarten this year. Last year Maria was very shy and did not talk much throughout the year. Maria had never used scissors (her mother did not allow it) and she did not know all of her alphabet when she entered kindergarten for the first time. At home Maria is a very normal child and in fact she often helps care for her 3 year old brother. With other children, Maria appears to be as alert and active as her playmates and she often emerges as leader. School tests show her to be of average intelligence, despite the possibility that the testing may be skewed by the fact that Maria is bilingual.

When the teacher informed Maria's parents that she was to be retained, she did not say it was due to English language development or inability to perform the required kindergarten tasks (often uncited reasons for retention); she merely said that Maria was immature, and small for her age and that she felt she would benefit from another year in kindergarten.

What Maria's teacher did not say and probably does not know is that:

1) MARIA'S CHANCES OF DROPPING OUT OF SCHOOL HAVE JUST BEEN INCREASED BY 50% BECAUSE SHE IS BEING RETAINED.

2) THERE IS NO RESEARCH DATA TO INDICATE THAT RETAINING MARIA WILL IN ANY WAY IMPROVE HER EDUCATIONAL PERFORMANCE.

3) THE PSYCHOLOGICAL AND EMOTIONAL IMPACT OF RETENTION IS DEFINITELY TRAUMATIC FOR MARIA, AND ESTIMATES ARE THAT NEXT TO PARENT DIVORCE THIS IS CONSIDERED THE MOST TRAUMATIC OF COMMON EVENTS THAT COULD HAPPEN TO MARIA.

HELP FOR THE

CLASSROOM TEACHER

DO YOU HAVE LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT (LEP) STUDENTS?

Most LEP students speak another language in their homes. If you've ever studied a foreign language, you surely remember what a painstaking discovery process it is. A key point to keep in mind is that it generally takes from 5 to 7 years for a second language learner to perform like a native speaker academically. Usually, the younger the student, the sooner he/she will "catch on" and "catch up". Be patient with yourself and your students. Maintain high yet realistic expectations, and remind yourself frequently that limited English proficient is not limited Thinking proficient.

Here are some basic suggestions for working effectively with your LEP students:

1) Be warm and welcoming. Speak clearly and simply; it is not necessary to speak more loudly.

2) Assign buddies and peer tutors to your LEP student (bilingual ones when possible). Be sure to include the child in all class activities.

3) Encourage your student to share his/her language and culture with you and your class. Don't tell LEP children that they shouldn't use their native language because it negatively affects their self-esteem; and they may grow to become ashamed of their first language. We want them to grow up knowing two languages, not just English.

4) Focus attention on key vocabulary. Use pictures, charts, graphs, and stories to teach vocabulary in context.

5) Keep talking to your student. It is normal for him/her to experience a "silent period" which can last for days, weeks, or even months. If a child in the early stages of learning English is reluctant to speak in English, do not force production.

6) Arrange for your student to receive intensive help with English whenever possible.

7) Instead of using textbooks with your LEP students, try making use of your elementary school libraries. Almost any topic or subject area you're teaching is contained in a children's book which generally has more pictures and simplified English.

8) Use a grading system that shows progress, but does not unfairly compare your LEP student with his/her peers' performance. Standardized tests are usually not a valid measure of an LEP student's performance; and these test scores should not be used for placement purposes.

9) Many of your LEP students have either repeated a grade, or have been placed in lower grades in the erroneous belief that they will learn English more quickly. These students are best served by keeping them at grade level, modifying and adapting their assignments, and offering additional help with English as frequently as possible.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

Q&A

Working with Limited–English–Proficient Students in the Regular Classroom

Prepared by Nancy Riddlemoser

November 1987

Special English instruction is an essential component of the limited–English–proficient (LEP) student's education. However, the time spent in the regular, non-English as a second language (ESL) classroom is critical in order to reach the goal of mainstreaming or integrating the LEP population into the regular academic program. With understanding on each educator's part, it is possible for the classroom teacher to productively work with LEP students in his or her classroom in order to maximize the students' exposure to authentic language during the school day.

How Can I Communicate with Students Who Do Not Speak English?

•Speak simply and clearly to the students. Try to speak in short, complete sentences in a normal tone of voice. Unless the student is hearing impaired, it is not necessary to speak loudly.

•Use prompts, cues, facial expressions, body language, visual aids, and concrete objects as often as possible. Pointing and nodding toward an open door while saying "Please, shut the door" is much more effective than giving the command in an isolated context.

•Establish oral/aural routines. Greetings each morning and closure at the end of class permit the student to become familiar with and anticipate limited language experiences. Examples include: "Hello, Juan," "Have a nice weekend," "Bye-bye," "See you tomorrow," "Line up for lunch," and "How are you?"

•Communicate warmth to the student. A smile, hello, and a pat on the back give the student the feeling of support needed in an unfamiliar setting (country, school, etc.). Knowing that the teacher is approachable and willing to work with the student is also important.

•Encourage the student to use English as much as possible and to rely on the native language only for more technical and/or emergency situations.

•Find people in the school or community who speak the student's language. Another LEP student at school or a foreign born or a first generation student who speaks the LEP student's native language at home can aid communication between the LEP student and the teacher. Foreign language teachers and ESL teachers are often able to provide assistance in emergency situations. Parents, church members, large businesses, universities, social service agencies, ethnic restaurants, and foreign merchants are valuable community resources. It is also helpful to know whether any of the LEP student's family members speak English.

•Keep talking to the student. It is normal for him or her to experience a "silent period" that can last days, weeks, or even months. In order to learn the language, the student must first develop active listening skills, followed by speaking, reading, and writing.

How Can I Best Meet the LEP Student's Social and Academic Needs in the Regular Classroom?

The first and most basic need is to ensure that the LEP student feels comfortable and secure. Social and psychological factors are of utmost importance in teaching LEP students. It is often frightening for a student of any age to be placed in a new classroom. This is magnified by the new language and cultural differences and compounded by the possible traumas and hardships that may have occurred prior to the student's move or relocation. In general, expect most children to adapt relatively quickly to the new placement. Teens are a bit slower, and adults usually require the most time.

A "buddy system" is an excellent way to ensure the LEP student is cared for. If possible, you may want more than one buddy for each student. Choose a native language sharer for academics and an "English only" for the more social, active, less technical language-oriented activities. "Buddy duty" should always be portrayed as a special privilege and *not* a chore. Having friends will make the LEP student feel better and help him or her learn more English at a faster rate. It may also increase your other students' acceptance of different nationalities.

Because you wish to enhance your LEP student's self-esteem and school career, pair him or her with someone whose behavior is one you wish modeled. Teaming up a LEP student with a trouble-maker may compound your classroom discipline problems.

Include the LEP student in as many activities, lessons, and assignments as possible, even if only for the socialization aspect. He or she needs the contact, language exposure and "cultural training." This allows the other students to view the LEP student as a true peer, valuable classmate, and desirable friend.

Present a positive approach to your class when dealing with the LEP student. When you say "Juan doesn't understand this, leave him alone" or "This is too hard for Khve," expect some students to avoid him at recess or lunchtime. It would be better to say, "Please help Juan with that page" or "Would you show Khve how we do this?"

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Have everyone in the building share in the responsibility of teaching the LEP student about your school, class, special projects, and community. This will satisfy the LEP student's sense of belonging and enrich the worlds of the other students and staff members.

If your school has a professional assessment center, it would be to your advantage to have the LEP student evaluated for achievement levels. If your school has an ESL teacher, reading specialist, visiting teacher, psychologist, or guidance counselor, you may feel more comfortable having them assist the student using a standardized battery of tests or conducting an informal survey or inventory.

Of course you will be able to assess many aspects of your student's social and academic development through careful observation. Does the student come to class prepared (with pencils, paper, etc.)? Is the student attentive and eager to participate? Can the student answer questions about his or her name, age, and where he or she is from? To determine specific academic achievement levels, try some of the following activities:

- Ask the student to copy the alphabet and numbers.
- Ask him or her to recite (or write) the alphabet and numbers from memory.
- Ask the student to repeat names of objects after you. (Show pictures of foods, vehicles, people, etc.).
- Ask the student to read a sample from the previous grade level. If he or she cannot, try a sample from a lower grade level (beginning with first grade, if appropriate), and determine up to which grade level the student can read.
- Ask the student to answer math computation problems from the previous grade level. If he or she cannot, try problems from a lower level. Math can be an important tool in determining appropriate grade level placement or grouping.

Date, sign, and keep a record of your findings. Whether a sophisticated tool or a very informal tool is used, the student's school career and subsequent progress may be measured against this. Compare what you have found with available grades, reports, or tests in the student's records. Note any changes or discrepancies between these records and your own findings.

An inability to reproduce sounds and difficulty in copying or writing may be normal phases in a LEP student's acquisition of English. However, they may also point to a learning disability. It is possible that a LEP student may need special education services.

Furthermore, many factors may drastically affect the LEP student's mental health, including traumas, experiences overseas, problems adapting to a new environment, and poor living conditions in the present environment. Some students may never have been to school before. Slowness in catching on to "simple" concepts could be lack of educational exposure, newness of material, or a learning disability.

In addressing the student's academic needs, remember to provide learning experiences and assignments that will enable him or her to feel productive, challenged, and successful. The LEP student needs a variety of tasks and assignments closely related to what the students in the regular classroom are doing. For example, while your class is working on math, the LEP student may work on a math assignment as well, perhaps of lesser difficulty. The important thing is that he or she is becoming more organized and involved in class routine.

Keep communication lines open. Try to coordinate whatever the ESL teacher is doing with what goes on in your class. The consistency and repetition of concepts and/or lessons can only help the LEP student.

In class discussion, call on the student as soon as possible. Even if the LEP student cannot speak much English, have him or her come to the board to point to the map, complete the number line, circle the correct answer, etc. Assign responsibilities such as washing the board, passing out papers, collecting homework, sharpening pencils, serving as line leader, etc. These activities will help the LEP student feel special and useful and help to develop citizenship skills.

What Techniques, Instructional Materials and Resources Are Recommended for Use with LEP Students?

It is important to maintain high expectations of LEP students, be prepared for their success and progress, and keep in mind that LEP students are generally not a remedial population. Usually the younger the student, the sooner he or she will "catch up" and "catch on."

If the student is receiving ESL instruction, your job may be easier if you establish a close relationship with the ESL teacher. Together you can plan the student's educational program. If there is no ESL teacher, you may work directly with the foreign language teacher(s), reading specialist, special education teacher, parent volunteers, or anyone else who may have resources, ideas, and time to share.

At the elementary level you can borrow workbooks, teaching aids, audio visual equipment, and assignment sheets from the lower grades. Curriculum guides and the entry/exit minimum skill requirements for each grade level are excellent resource guidelines.

Native language dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and picture dictionaries (of varying degrees of difficulty) are essentials for you and the LEP student. Encourage and expect the student to make use of these and any other suitable reference materials as soon as possible.

Your primary techniques will involve 1) individualizing; 2) adapting; and 3) modifying classwork for the LEP student. Always consider his or her language development, study skills and the subject content while doing so. Examples of these techniques are described below.

- *Individualizing:* If the LEP student in an elementary classroom clearly comprehends the meaning of words for a spelling lesson yet cannot express the meaning of the words orally, you may wish to individualize the spelling assignment by allowing him or her to "draw the definition" of each word. The LEP student who is unable to define the word *car*, for example, as "a moving vehicle with four wheels" could convey his or her understanding of the concept by drawing a simple diagram or illustration. Individualizing a science project at the secondary level may require a detailed picture or model of the subject being studied (i.e., the heart, plants, the weather) with labels being copied in English and possibly in the student's native language.
- *Adapting:* Adapting a primary or secondary level mathematics test or textbook for the LEP student whose computational skills are well-developed but whose reading skills are less so may involve deleting word problems in math altogether. To compensate for this deletion, you may wish to add more computational problems or to grade only the computation part of a test. Social studies assignments,

on the other hand, may require more language than the student possesses. Therefore, you may find simple memorization activities helpful for the LEP student; sample activities may include memorizing the states of the United States and their respective capitals, the names of the seven continents of the world, five explorers of the New World, or three Presidents of the United States. Activities such as unscrambling key vocabulary terms or matching vocabulary words with their definitions are also useful.

Modifying: In an elementary reading class, it would be quite feasible to use a lower level basal series for "reading time." The LEP student would still be responsible for reading but at a suitable pace and appropriate level. At both the elementary and secondary levels, spelling, grammar, and punctuation exercises may be assigned from a lower level textbook or workbook that corresponds to whatever the class is learning at the time.

Remember to frequently include concrete objects and everyday experiences across the curriculum. This will give the student a solid base in dealing with his or her new environment. Examples include:

Mathematics: using the calendar; handling money in the cafeteria or store.

Telling Time: changing classes; using daily movie, TV, and bus schedules.

Vital Statistics: height, weight, and age.

Survival Skills: address and telephone number, measuring distance; reading cooking measurements; making shopping lists, etc.

Science: hands-on experiments, plant and animal care, charts, graphs, illustrations, specimens.

Social Studies: hands-on experiences such as field trips, movies, magazine and newspaper clippings, collages, maps, flags, customs, and "show and tell," using materials from home or travels.

Art, Music and Physical Education: participating in all instructional and recreational activities; inviting the student to share activities of this nature from his homeland. These courses may provide the only outlets for the LEP student to express him– or herself.

Design a seating arrangement where the LEP student can be involved with whole group, individual, and peer group activities. The LEP student needs a flexible arrangement to fit his or her special needs. Sometimes just a small space where it is possible to concentrate is sufficient. You may find it helpful to seat the student near you or his or her buddy.

Will the LEP Student Understand My Classroom Rules and Follow Directions?

LEP students will follow your classroom rules very much the same way other students do. Indeed, it is important that the LEP student learn your classroom management system as soon as possible; otherwise, potential discipline problems may arise such as unruly behavior, classmate ridicule, and feelings of resentment. Although the first weeks may be a confusing time for the LEP student, it is important that he or she understand your expectations from the very beginning.

•The use of visibly displayed charts, graphs, and reward systems will assist you in communicating your expectations. Illustrate with symbols or pictures if there is any doubt about the difficulty of the language level.

•Reminders of rules and their consequences (both positive and negative) need to be in plain sight or easily accessible. Smiley faces, sad faces, checks, stars, 100% and for your younger students, stickers, are all easily recognizable symbols and quickly learned.

•Demonstrate consistency, concern, and control. These may be conveyed nonverbally, and an alert student will recognize classroom routines and expectations, like checking homework or going to the office for a tardy slip, very early in the school year. The LEP student's understanding of common classroom rewards such as "stickers," "outside," "treat," and "grade" are proof that the LEP student knows what is happening in the classroom. He or she must therefore be held to the same standards of appropriate behavior as the other students, and be rewarded or punished accordingly. Moreover, the other students need to see that the LEP student is treated as an equal.

•At the beginning, LEP students will attempt to follow verbal directions while actually observing modeled behavior. So, while speaking about a math problem in the text, for example, point to someone who has his or her math book open; hold up a ruler when telling the students to use a ruler for their work; when students are coloring maps for social studies, have a student show the LEP student his box of crayons, point to the map and nod "yes."

•While others are doing seatwork, the LEP student may copy from the board or a book, practice using appropriate worksheets, work quietly with a peer, listen to tapes, use a language master, or illustrate a topic.

•Design a list of commonly used "directional" words such as *circle, write, draw, cut, read, fix, copy, underline, match, add, subtract.* Have the LEP student find these "action" words in a picture dictionary with a buddy or alone. Then have the student illustrate these words with symbols or translate them into the native language. The student may keep these words in the front of a notebook, on the desk, or in a pencil case. They will help the LEP student become an independent learner, capable of being resourceful and occupied when you are not available to help. Underline or circle these terms on the board, on worksheets, or in consumable texts. When these words are recognized by the student, you can expect him or her to complete the assigned tasks independently.

What Can I Do to Learn About the LEP Student's Culture?

•Ask the student about his country and enthusiastically assign the country to your class as a social studies project. Engage the entire school in international education. The more you and your class ask and learn from the LEP student, the sooner he or she will feel confident and comfortable.

•Go to the library; read *National Geographic;* invite foreign speakers to your school such as families, religious leaders, merchants, visiting professionals. Keep current on movies, traveling exhibits, local festivals. Listen to the news and discuss pertinent issues with the class.

•Find out which holidays the LEP student celebrates and how they are celebrated. Find out whether the LEP student's customs are similar to American customs. On United Nations Day or during Brotherhood Week, have the students make flags and foods from different countries. Perhaps the LEP student has clothes, money, photos, artwork, songs, games, maps, an alphabet or number charts to share with other students. All are valid educational media. Invite

foreign parents to teach their native languages in your class for an exciting project. Celebrate "Christmas Around the World."

What Specific Activities Can I Do to Prepare the LEP Student for Life in the United States?

•Explain, demonstrate, and anticipate possible difficulties with everyday routines and regulations whenever time permits. If there is a large LEP population in your school or district, perhaps volunteers could compile pictorial or bilingual guidelines or handbooks with details of policy and procedures. Depending upon the student's experience(s) with formal education, the need for explanations may vary greatly. Consider the following routines as "teaching opportunities" to prepare the students for American culture:

IN CLASS

•Class rules (rewards, enforcement, consequences).
•School conduct.
•Morning rituals (greetings, calendar work, assignments, collection of money, homework).
•Library conduct (checkout, book return).
•Field trips/permission slips.
•Gym (participation, showers, attire).
•School photographs (dress, payment).
•Substitutes.
•Seat work/group work.
•Tests, quizzes, reports.
•Grades, report cards, incompletes.
•"Treats."
•Free time.
•Teams (choosing, assigning).
•Standardized testing (exemptions).
•Exams.
•Special projects (extra credit, double grades).

IN SCHOOL

•Breaks: bathroom, water, recess.
•Cafeteria routines: line formation, lunch passes.
•Fire drills.
•Assemblies/pep rallies/awards/ awards ceremonies.
•Contests/competitions.
•Holidays/festivities/traditions.
•Fund raisers/"drives."
•Routine health exams, screening.
•Suspension.
•Guidance counseling.
•Disciplinary methods (in–school suspension).
•Free lunch (income verification).
•"Family life" education (sex education).

AFTER SCHOOL

•Parent conferences and attendance.
•PTA meetings.
•Proms, dances, special events.
•Field days.
•Clubs, honor societies, sport activities.
•Detention.
•Summer school.

Resources

The National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education is a federally funded center which provides information on programs, instructional materials, research, and other resources related to the education of LEP students. The Clearinghouse can also provide information on additional networks of federally funded centers that serve school districts with LEP students. Eligibility for free technical assistance from these centers varies according to funding priorities. For information, write or call: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 11501 Georgia Ave., Suite 102, Wheaton, MD 20902. Telephone: 1-301-933-9448 or 1-800-647-0123.

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SPANISH - ESPAÑOL

Common Expressions

HOLA Hello
BUENOS DÍAS Good Morning
¿CÓMO ESTÁS? How are you?
ME LLAMO My name is
¿CÓMO TE LLAMAS? What's your name?
¿DÓNDE ESTÁ? Where is?
¿COMPRENDES? Do you understand?

POR FAVOR Please
MUCHAS GRATIAS Many thanks
BIEN good, fine
¡MUY BIEN! Very good!
ADIÓS Goodbye
HASTA MAÑANA See you tomorrow
SÍ, COMPRENDO Yes, I understand
NO, NO COMPRENDO No, I don't understand

Classroom Expressions

EL MAESTRO, LA MAESTRA teacher
EL PAPEL paper
LA PLUMA pen
EL LÁPIZ pencil
LA SILLA chair
LA MESA table
EL BAÑO bathroom

LA VENTANA window
LAS TIJERAS scissors
LA PIZARRA chalkboard
LA TIZA chalk
EL TELÉFONO telephone
EL AGUA water

LA PUERTA door
EL AUTOBUS bus
LA BANDERA flag

Commands

ESCUCHA Listen
MIRA Look
DAME Give me
LEVÁNTATE Get up
VAMOS AFUERA Let's go outside
SIÉNTATE Sit down
CÁLLATE Be quiet
QUITA Stop, quit it

ES LA HORA DE (It's time)

COMER (to eat)
DORMIR (to sleep)
JUGAR (to play)
TRABAJAR (to work)
LEER (to read)
HABLAR (to speak)
ESCRIBIR (to write)
DIBUJAR (to draw)

Colors

ROJO red
VERDE green
AMARILLO yellow
ANARANJADO orange
NEGRO black
BLANCA white
CAFÉ brown
AZUL blue

Numbers

1 - UNO
2 - DOS
3 - TRES
4 - CUATRO
5 - CINCO
6 - SEIS
7 - SIETE
8 - OCHO
9 - NUEVE
10 - DIEZ
11 - ONCE
12 - DOCE

Days of the Week

LUNES - Monday
MARTES - Tuesday
MIÉRCOLES - Wednesday
JUEVES - Thursday
VIERNES - Friday
SÁBADO - Saturday
DOMINGO - Sunday

Months

ENERO - January
FEBRERO - February
MARZO - March
ABRIL - April
MAYO - May
JUNIO - June
JULIO - July
AGOSTO - August
SEPTIEMBRE - September
OCTUBRE - October
NOVIEMBRE - November
DICIEMBRE - December

ORAL STRATEGIES[1]

Students acquiring English need exposure to language that they can understand about topics which have meaning for them. This kind of language exposure has been called "comprehensible input." To provide this input, teachers can use a number of oral strategies, many of which language learners use spontaneously as they acquire the vocabulary and syntax of a language. These oral strategies include:

1. Cueing

When speaking with language learners, enhance the spoken words in the following ways to make meaning more apparent:

a. Use props, stuff, or "realia" as referents when speaking with ESL students. For example, when you teach terms for foods, clothing, or household items, use the actual items, models of items or pictures of the items.

b. Use facial expression to communicate meaning. For example, when reading a story, change facial expression to indicate change of character; when discussing smells or tastes, use facial expressions to indicate sweet, bitter, and sour.

c. Use gestures to convey meaning. For example, gesture with your hands to indicate different sizes when teaching comparative terms.

d. Use language manner, including intonation, pauses, and turn-taking to indicate how or when a student is to speak. For example, indicate by pausing and intonation when students may join in with a repeated line of a poem such as Paul Eluard's "Liberty," which provides a pattern or "chunk" of language with variations: "On my school notebooks/On my desk and the trees/On the sand on the snow/I write your name" (*Talking to the Sun*, p. 134).

2. Modeling

Carefully model language patterns and structures used in the natural course of classroom conversation before expecting students to use them. When students get "stuck," help them specify their meaning by elaborating and expanding sentences and phrases. When a student points to scissors and says, "Want scissors," respond with, "Do you want the scissors?" as you pass the scissors. Correcting by modeling is especially effective. Rather than calling attention to student errors, find a way to use the same form that the student used incorrectly in your response, but respond with the correct form. Your students will hear the correct form modeled in a natural way which does not take away from the meaning of the situation. For example, if a student on his way to lunch comments, "I hungry," you might respond, "I'm hungry, too, Diego."

[1] Adapted from McCloskey, M. L. & Nations, M. J. (1988). *English Everywhere: An Integrated Curriculum Guide*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press, pp. 2-3.

3. Elicitation

Provide varied opportunities for hesitant language learners to speak by structuring interactions that elicit as elaborate responses as students are capable of producing. Use your language manner as indicated in #1d above to let students know when a response is expected. Then ask questions appropriate to the language learner's proficiency. Beginning learners might respond better to questions that require an action or one or two words as a response. More advanced learners need open-ended questions which have more than one right answer and follow-up questions to help them extend their answers.

4. Chunking

Every language has phrases or short sentences that native speakers use with such frequency that language learners pick them up and use them as whole "chunks" even before understanding each word. Examples are "I don't know," or "That's okay."

Repeated opportunities to use "chunks" of language in a meaningful, appropriate, and playful context can open the way for students to begin to communicate with one another successfully. Use pop songs and favorite poems as content for chunking activities. As the number of simple patterns students can use increases, students gradually and naturally analyze parts of phrases for meaning and combine the chunks into complex statements for more satisfying communication.

Be conscious of useful phrases and patterns, and structure opportunities for their use around meaningful events and needs in the classroom. Whenever possible, turn these activities into a spontaneous game that helps students learn the new structure.

Chunking should be:

a. Meaningful. Practice should be designed to meet language needs of students who are trying to accomplish something important to them. Meaningful activities can include learning about essential school skills, such as changing classes or following schedules, learning about content area topics, or language play. Play can provide important opportunities for language learning in a judgement-free context. For example, in the lunch conversation in #2 above, you could create a language practice activity by introducing an alphabet game, saying, "I'm so hungry I could eat an automobile," and prompting the next player, a student, to say "I'm so hungry I could eat a bus!" You have invented a game which teaches a needed language structure (and reviews the alphabet and vehicle names) in the time it takes to wait for the lunch bell!

b. Simple. At first, focus on one thing at a time. Vary one part of the language "chunk." If beginners are learning the months of the year (or ordinal numbers or prepositions) read a book about months, such as Sendak's *Chicken Soup with Rice*. After reading and discussing the book, have small groups each select a month of the year and develop and act out a skit about it. The rest of the class can guess which month each skit portrays.

c. Varied according to students' needs. Provide a wide range of ways for students to participate orally in the classroom and adjust your cueing, modeling, elicitations, and chunking games to student proficiency. For example, beginning students might make substitutions in the sentence, "I like to _____," while advanced students might invent complex variations of the pattern analogy, "_____ is to _____ as _____ is to_____."

d. Fun. Use materials that make these activities enjoyable. Funny poems (poems by Shel Silverstein are big hits), games and rap songs are excellent sources of pattern practice activities that are also play. Your school library will have examples of jump rope rhymes such as "Down by the river where the green grass grows" or "Not Last Night but the Night Before." Your students can help transcribe songs from recordings.

Embedding chunking into your daily routine does not require a large expenditure of time. In fact, you have a very efficient classroom strategy that combines specific vocabulary and linguistic practice with normal classroom activities and routines. Use this strategy to settle students during transitions to new activities or as they prepare to move to another location, to introduce students to a new topic or area of study, or to make use of a few minutes as you and your class wait for an activity to begin or a bell to ring. Though this strategy requires little time, it does require being constantly alert for useful phrases and sentences as they occur naturally and for ways to highlight them meaningfully.

Resources for Oral Strategies

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TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE[2]

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching strategy which introduces new language through a series of commands to physically enact an event. The student responds to the commands with actions. Research on this strategy has demonstrated more efficient learning with fuller student involvement when students actually move than when they do not. For beginning students, speaking is delayed until comprehension has been thoroughly internalized through actions.

Seven basic steps outline the strategy:

1. Setting up. The teacher sets up a situation in which students follow a set of commands using actions, generally with props, to act out a series of events; for example, shopping for groceries, baking a pie, changing a light bulb, or washing a car.

2. Demonstration. The teacher demonstrates or has a student demonstrate the series of actions. Students are expected to pay careful attention, but they do not talk or repeat the commands.

3. Group live action. The group acts out the series as the teacher gives commands. Usually this step is repeated several times so that students internalize the series thoroughly before they produce it orally, or, when appropriate, read the series.

4. Written copy. The series is put on chart paper or blackboard for students to read and copy.

5. Oral repetition and questions. After students have made a written copy, they repeat each line after the teacher, taking care with difficult words. They have ample opportunity to ask questions, and the teacher points out particular pronunciation features such as minimal pairs (soap/soup or cheap/sheep).

6. Student demonstration. Students are given the opportunity to play the roles of reader of the series and performer of the actions. The teacher checks comprehension and prompts when needed.

7. Pairs. Students work in groups of two or three, one telling or reading the series, and the other(s) listening and responding physically. During the group work time, the teacher can work individually with students.

Several authors have developed TPR scripts on a variety of topics for teachers' use. Develop your own activities around familiar situations or around school experiences that might be frightening or confusing to students from other cultures (e.g., an earthquake drill, scoliosis screening, or a job interview).

As well as being a valuable teaching tool, TPR can be an effective tool for student assessment. You can observe students who are not yet producing much English as they participate in TPR activities and determine just how much the student is able to understand.

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[2] Adapted from McCloskey, M. L. & Nations, M. J. (1988). *English Everywhere: An Integrated Curriculum Guide*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

WATCHING TV
(a sample TPR script)

1. It's time to watch your favorite show. Turn on the TV.
2. This is the wrong show. You hate this show. Make a terrible face. change the channel.
3. This show is great! Smile! Sit down in your favorite chair.
4. This part is very funny. Laugh.
5. Now there's a commercial. Get up and get a snack and a drink. Sit down again.
6. The ending is very sad. Cry.
7. The show is over. Turn off the TV.
8. Go to bed.

TEDDY BEAR, TEDDY BEAR
(A Jump Rope TPR Game)

Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, turn around.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, touch the ground.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, read the news.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, shine your shoes.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, go upstairs.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, say your prayers.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, turn out the light.
Teddy Bear, Teddy Bear, say goodnight.

Resources for Total Physical Response

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COOPERATIVE LEARNING IN MULTICULTURAL CLASSROOMS[3]

Incorporating a cooperative learning philosophy in your classroom is one of the most effective ways to fully integrate students of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and to promote learning of *all* students. In cooperative classrooms, students find value in helping one another learn. They don't see educational goals as attainable by the few: only three A's in the curve. Rather, they see them as attainable by all: everyone accomplishing a set of goals. The classroom is organized so that the goals are most likely to be attained when students cooperate and collaborate. When the class works together toward a goal, they become a cohesive, powerful, and positive group.

Research shows that using peers as collaborators, teachers and tutors results in better academic achievement, ethnic relations, pro-social development, and attitudes toward school, learning, and self in multicultural classrooms. It also increases a sense of student-ownership of the classroom environment and activities.

Strategies using peers as co-teachers and using language as a medium of communication rather than as a separate subject enhance language learning. When small groups of students collaborate on a common task, they must clarify and negotiate meaning with one another which results in complex language input, including low-level input (repetition of information), middle-level input (stating of new information), and high-level input (integrating information and creating rationales for its use). All of these types of language input are crucial to second language acquisition.

In cooperative learning settings students can use higher level cognitive processes as they compare contrasting views in order to come to a consensus and jointly synthesize information to present it to the rest of the class. Throughout this process students of all levels of language proficiency gain practice in the use of the language necessary to carry on these negotiations -- practice that is more varied, purposeful, and directed to students' proficiency levels than group-paced worksheets, which are usually inappropriate for young children.

Many other rewards come with the cooperative learning environment. Discipline improves, freeing the teacher from the role of maintaining social control in favor of the role of consultant to individuals and small groups. The teacher spends more time teaching and less time managing students. Since what students like to do, i.e., talk, is put to productive use toward their academic achievement and language development, students spend more time on task. At the same time, students become more active, self-directed, and communicative learners as they work cooperatively together.

[3] Adapted from McCloskey, M. L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies.* Atlanta, GA: Educo Press, pp. 4-5.

Teachers can encourage cooperative learning in a variety of ways:

1. Games. Play cooperative class games in which all share a game goal rather than compete for it. (See Terry Orlick's book for examples.) Assign pairs or small groups to play games or do puzzles together. Introduce the games to individuals or small groups so that all understand how they are played, or pre-teach a few experts who can teach others. Students can work together to make a castle out of blocks, a diorama of a folk tale or a diagram of how a machine works. They can solve problems or puzzles or play board games. Game cards can include pictures or words pertaining to relevant content area subjects; rules can be changed to incorporate more language, e.g., students have to name the picture (in English) of each card they turn over in Concentration.

Rules can also be changed according to students' proficiencies, e.g., one student must read the word on the back, another must name the picture, a third must use the word in a sentence, depending on the students' levels of proficiency.

2. Peer tutoring. Assign a more proficient English-speaker to help another student in some task. For example, in primary classes the more proficient student might help a peer copy a tangram pattern and name the colors and shapes at the Math Center, re-tell a story on the flannelboard at the Language Arts Center, or classify shells at the Science Center. In a secondary class, the more proficient student might read to a peer and/or paraphrase difficult material or take dictation for a journal from a student who is unable to write independently. There are many situations in which the student less proficient in English has talents or information to offer the tutor.

The best interaction occurs when there is some need to communicate, some information gap between the communicators. Take advantage of these opportunities. Peers are sometimes the best teachers!

3. Peer assignments. Assign two students to a common task. The students may confer with one another, contributing what they can. For example, in a primary class, a student might create number stories in math and another might act out the story with manipulatives and write the story in numerals, e.g., "A farmer planted five seeds. Three grew. How many didn't grow? 5 - 3 = 2." Or, as two students weigh objects found on a scale at the Science Center, a beginning English learner might fill in the chart with weights of items collected while the more fluent speaker calls out the number.

In a secondary class, a student might ask another to listen to a draft of a story and make suggestions. Or, as two students perform a science experiment together, a beginning English learner might draw the experiment while the more fluent speaker narrates observations. Two or more students might work together to find answers to text-generated questions. Searching for answers can become an exciting game.

"Numbered Heads Together" is an effective cooperative technique for helping students share responsibility for one another's learning. Students in groups of about four count off so that each student has an assigned number (1-4) or color (red, green, yellow, blue). (For young children, use colored tags on strings to avoid confusion.) The teacher asks a question, and each group discusses and agrees on an answer which each member of the group must be prepared to provide. Then the

teacher calls out a number (or color), and students with that number (or color) are chosen to answer the question.

4. Cooperative projects. Divide students into small groups (4-6 in a group is ideal) to produce a product together, such as completing a puzzle, creating a picture, dramatic skit, book, or mural. The project should include opportunities for cooperative planning, use of manipulative materials, synthesizing ideas, and reaching group consensus. If cooperating in groups is to be successful, you must provide children with adequate support in learning the necessary skills. Begin with projects that entail bringing individual pieces of work together (such as individual pictures and dictated or written poems edited and combined into a group-made book). These projects will allow students to learn to plan and work together as a group. Later on, assign group projects that require more sophisticated collaborative effort. Rotating leadership and leadership roles (e.g., discussion leader, recorder, positive responder, question-asker) in small groups can give students a chance to learn valuable leadership skills.

4. Jigsaw. In this more complex cooperative learning strategy, students use the division of labor to simplify a difficult task and information gaps to promote meaningful interaction. Divide the class into teams. Each team works on the same set of learning tasks.

Each group member within a team has a different task. Members of different teams with the same learning task come together to collaboratively become "experts" in that area of the learning unit. The "experts" in each area then return to their original teams and teach what they learned to the rest of their group. For example, a class studying a unit on San Francisco could be divided into five groups each with five members. One person in each group is to become an expert on the history, one on the people, one on geography, one on the weather, and one on tourist attractions of the city. Students studying each topic meet together to learn cooperatively all that they can about their particular topic. When students return to their original groups, each student is an expert who holds one piece of the "puzzle." Students can put the "jigsaw puzzle" together as they teach one another about San Francisco and produce a product showing what they have learned.

Keep several things in mind when using these cooperative learning strategies:

First, ensure that groups represent a cross-section of the class as to sex, ethnic background, and language competence so that all students will have access to a variety of language and cognitive input that will promote their language development. Reorganize groups when necessary to achieve your teaching goals. Occasionally, but not always, group students for specific learning needs or purposes.

Second, have a wide variety of materials available and accessible to students to accommodate all of the different levels of language ability. For ESOL beginners, use picture books, puzzles, picture cards, learning centers, manipulatives, games, art materials, etc. For more advanced students, include books, periodicals, charts and maps.

Third, teach, model and practice group activities such as planning, brainstorming, organizing materials, and discussion techniques which help students reach consensus. For example, work with students to plan and make a mural about Halloween,

then remind them of the steps in that planning process before guiding groups in planning and making a mural for Thanksgiving. By spring, groups should be able to make murals and design instructional bulletin boards independently!

Finally, find ways to reward and recognize cooperative learning. Display group products in the school or in the neighborhood public buildings and businesses (this also promotes good public relations for the class and the school). Use notes, journals, or a message board to compliment students who confer with one another or tutor peers well. Write notes to parents and articles praising group efforts for the class newsletter or school newspaper.

Resources on Cooperative Learning in Multicultural Classrooms

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THE LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH[4]

The language experience approach is readily adaptable to second language learners and students in bilingual programs at a variety of levels. The approach has a number of features which enhance whole language learning for ESOL students. Students learn that what they say is important enough to be written down; they learn how language is encoded by watching as their oral language is put into print; and they use familiar language -- their own -- in follow-up activities which investigate language structures they have learned, including left-right, top-bottom progression, letter-sound correspondence, spelling patterns, sight vocabulary, and conventions of print.

There are six basic steps in the approach:

1. Share and discuss an experience. This can be a trip, an activity such as cooking, playing a game, or role playing, a book (wordless or with words), a story, a trip, a science experiment, a personal narrative, a film, or a video.

2. After the discussion, elicit dictation from individuals or the group. Write students' suggestions on the blackboard, chart paper or overhead projector for all to see, using students' exact words without correcting or changing.

3. With the students, read and revise the story together. Periodically, read back the dictation, asking if it is what the students intended. Encourage students to suggest changes to improve the piece. In the context of taking dictation and helping students with revision, you can teach and reinforce such skills as letter-sound correspondence, usage, capitalization, punctuation, and word endings and parts. You can also teach such composition skills as using a strong lead and organizing a story chronologically. The revised story is copied to be saved and re-used.

4. Read and re-read the story together. Individuals may read with or without you, and the class may read in chorus. Invite students at various levels to participate in different ways (see the "Shared Book Experience" strategy). Having students of different proficiency levels work together can be very helpful.

5. Have students use the piece in many follow-up activities, including matching activities, writing activities, copying, unscrambling words or sentences from the story, etc. Students can illustrate the parts of the story that they dictated, making a cover and turning the story into a class small or big book. Select follow-up activities based on student levels. Beginning

[4] Adapted from McCloskey, M. L. & Nations, M. J. (1988). *English Everywhere: An Integrated Curriculum Guide*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

students might search for certain words and underline them, read the story in chorus, or participate in an oral cloze activity. (In a cloze activity, every nth word is left out of a passage for students to fill in.) Intermediate students might unscramble sentences, choose words and make cards for a word bank, or match sentence strips to sequenced pictures from the story. Duplicate the story and have students use small copies for reading, selecting, and practicing vocabulary words. Children may enjoy making covers for their own copies of the story, illustrating the pages, and taking the books home to read to family members.

6. **Students may move from reading their own or class pieces to trading and reading one another's work.** They may also move from dictating to the teacher to writing their own pieces.

Resources for The Language Experience Approach

Ashton-Warner, S. (1963). *Teacher.* New York: Simon & Schuster.

Dixon, C. & Nessel, D. (1983). *Language experience approach to reading (and writing): LEA for ESL.* Hayward CA: Alemany.

Rigg, P. (1989). Language experience approach: Reading naturally. In Rigg, P and Allen, V. (Eds.), *When they don't all speak English*, pp. 65-76. Urbana, IL: NCTE.

Van Allen, R. & Allen, C. (1976). *Language experience activities.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

READING ALOUD[1]

Fluent early readers are children who have been read to. Although reading aloud is important for all students, it is especially important for second language learners, who have not been introduced to the English language on the knee of someone who loves them most of all. If a teacher reads aloud daily, and well, students who are learning English will mirror the teacher's enthusiasm for the English language and for reading. In addition, they will be motivated to read for pleasure by associating reading with warm moments spent with a caring adult. They will learn about holding and using books. They will acquire the vocabulary and structures of the language, as well as a sense of the structure of stories.

Here are a few pointers for improving your read-aloud sessions:

1. Make your reading time a close, happy, comfortable one. You may choose to sit in a special "author's chair" when you read. Seat the students comfortably near you. At various times read to the whole class, small groups, and individuals. Invite special individuals -- the principal, the district supervisor, parents, your congressman, your best friend -- to read aloud to your class.

2. If you are using books or magazines with pictures, make sure that all the students can see the pictures easily. Select books that have large, clear pictures to share with the whole group. After you have read them aloud, make books with smaller pictures available so that students may enjoy them at their leisure.

3. Select books that you like. Work with your librarian to find good books that suit your taste and your students' interests and ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Use references, such as *The Read-Aloud Handbook* (Trelease, 1982). Choose books with clear, realistic pictures that tell a story by themselves to help English learners follow along.

4. Share books with small groups often. By doing this, you can monitor your students' interests and interact frequently with individuals about books.

5. Introduce books carefully. Give your personal introduction to a book you have carefully selected and can't wait to share with students. Bring the author and illustrator to life by telling who they are and what they do. In most school and public libraries, references, such as *About the Author*, are available for your background reading. Students will learn that books are written by real people, and that they, too, can learn to write books.

6. Activate background knowledge and focus students' attention before beginning the story. Before reading, introduce the topic by asking students what they know about it from their own cultural experiences. For example, when introducing *Amelia Bedelia Plays Ball*, by Peggy Parish, have students share what they know about team sports or games from their own heritage. With young and/or beginning language learners, props or "realia" are very helpful. Bring in a toy mouse when reading *If You Give a Mouse a Cookie*.

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[1] McCloskey, M. L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

Joffe Numeroff, or keep a spider in a screen-covered aquarium as you read *The Very Busy Spider* by Eric Carle. Follow up a trip to the zoo by reading *I Am Eyes: Ni Macho* by Leila Ward.

7. Reading aloud well comes to few of us naturally, so practice. Pay attention to your voice. Develop your expressiveness, varying pitch, volume, and pace of reading. Create different voices for different characters. And don't read too quickly -- English learners need time to build mental pictures of what you are reading.

Suggestions for book selection for students who are acquiring English:

1. In selecting books for readers at different stages in their language development, pay attention to your students' response to the books. Read books that hold students' attention. Don't worry about a few passages or words that students don't completely understand. You want to stretch students' attention spans and challenge them. Don't, however, shoot way over students' heads and frustrate them. Retell events before and after reading the story to help beginning and intermediate students know what is going on. Watch students' faces as you read. If a number of students are frustrated or bored, stop and review the plot. If many students are not enjoying the book, find another selection.

2. For beginning language learners, start with wordless books (such as Mercer Mayer's), simple predictable picture books (such as the Big Books put out by several publishers), and rhymes (such as Mother Goose) and other poems. When reading aloud, encourage beginning listeners to ask questions and make contributions, and don't hesitate to read favorite stories over and over. Encourage students to join in on predictable lines like, "I think I can, I think I can" from *The Little Engine that Could* by Watty Piper or "I meant what I said and I said what I meant," (from *Horton Hatches the Egg* by Dr. Seuss).

3. As your students learn to love and listen to books, move up to short storybooks by such authors as Dr. Seuss, Bill Peet, Tomie de Paola, Ezra Jack Keats, and Judith Viorst, to mention just a few. The Children's Book Press in San Francisco is publishing beautiful picture books by and about people from many cultures. Keep reading poetry to the students, too (try Arnold Adoff, Charlotte Zolotow, Karla Kuskin, and X. J. Kennedy), and share interesting selections from nonfiction picture books and students' magazines (perhaps nature books such as *Zoobooks, Ranger Rick,* or *National Geographic World*).

4. Focus on one author or subject for a while. Give students repeated exposure to a favorite author, and read a number of books on a common topic or theme, so that language learners can hear the same terms and concepts used in different contexts. Their comprehension will grow as they build on previous experience. Help students compare and contrast different works by an author or by different authors. Choose books purposefully to help students discover themes, formats, styles, and types of literature used by various authors.

5. Make your story selection multicultural. Find and read stories that present different countries and ethnic groups, including those represented in your class. Look for books that show people of different cultures respecting one another's differences yet working and living together. *Abiyoyo*, by Pete Seeger, is an excellent example of such a book.

Resources for Reading Aloud

Atwell, M. (1985). Predictable books for adolescent readers. *Journal of Reading*, Oct 18-22.

Durkin, D. (1966). *Children who read early*. New York: Teachers College.

Hough, R. A., Nurss, J. R. & Enright, D. S. (1986). Story reading with limited English speaking children in the regular classroom. *The Reading Teacher*. 39 (6), 510-514.

Hudelson, S. (1985). Beginning reading and the bilingual child. *Dimensions*, 13, 510-514.

Monson, D. L. (Ed.). (1985). *Adventuring with books: A booklist for pre-K-grade 6*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Oppenheim, J., Brenner, B. & Boegehold, B.D. (1986). *Choosing books for kids*. New York: Ballantine Books.

Reed, Arthea J. S. (1988). *Comics to classics*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Roser, N. & Frith, M. (Eds.). (1983). *Children's choices: Teaching with books children like*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Smallwood, B.A. (1990) *The literature connection: A read-aloud guide for multicultural classroom reading*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Trelease, J. (1982). *The read-aloud handbook*. New York: Penguin Books.

Recommended Anthologies

de Reigniers, B. S. (Ed.). (1988). *Sing a song of popcorn*. New York: Scholastic.

Fadiman, C. (1985). *The world treasury of children's literature (Vols. 1-3)*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co.

Koch, K & Farrell, K. (1985) *Talking to the sun*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

McCloskey, M. L. & Stack, L. *Voices in Literature*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1992.

Prelutsky, J. (1983). *Random house book of poetry for children*. New York: Random House.

Prelutsky, J. (Ed.). (1986). *Read-aloud rhymes for the very young*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

SHARED READING[1]

Shared reading is an effective literacy development strategy for groups of students functioning at a wide range of levels. Beginning language learners hear the rhythm of the language along with much repeated vocabulary. Intermediate students can use reading-like behavior while reciting from the books or following the teacher. Advanced students can read independently, using as many cues as they know. The pace, positive teaching, and meaningful context all maintain student attention and promote rapid learning.

Shared reading requires teacher-made, student-made, or published poster-sized books which can be seen and read by a group of students or by the whole class at once, or text on a transparency for the class to use. The text should be well written, appealing to students, and predictable, using rhyme, rhythm, repetition, and clear illustrations to make the contents accessible to students who are learning English. Big books or language experience charts authored by the teacher, students, or both together are also appropriate for shared reading. Students can also hold individual copies of the same piece.

A sample daily shared reading session might look like this:

1. Tune in. Get students' attention by beginning with familiar songs and poetry using a pointer to follow along on enlarged print charts.

2. Share favorite stories. Withstudents, re-read familiar stories, poems, and songs in unison. Encourage students to choose their favorites. Between readings, point out elements of reading, using the various cue systems: semantic, context, syntactic and graphophonic. Teach students directional conventions, prediction, self-correction, sight vocabulary, letter-sound associations, letter names, conventions of punctuation, and intonation patterns in the context of reading.

3. Introduce a new story. Introduce the topic so that children can put it in a familiar cultural context. Gathering mussels from underneath the ice as described in *The Very Last First Time*, by Jan Andrews, may seem very alien to some students, but they can identify with the "first" time they were considered old enouth to do something without adult supervision. Help the students use picture cues and word-solving strategies in the context of the new piece, modeling how print is unlocked and building up anticipation so that the students can't wait for the new story.

4. Read aloud. Give a dramatic model reading of the story from beginning to end. Students may begin to chime in on repeated sentences or phrases. Then have students share ideas and feelings about the story. Follow with a second choral reading, and perhaps a third, with students doing more of the reading each time.

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[1] Adapted from McCloskey, M. L. & Nations, M. J. (1988). *English Everywhere: An Integrated Curriculum Guide*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

5. Students read independently. Have the students read or "pretend read" familiar stories individually or in small groups. Encourage them to play the role of the teacher, pointing at the text as they read to one another. Make these stories available to students during Book Sharing Time.

6. Students respond through follow-up activities. Have students participate in related arts activities: painting, mural-making, dramatizing, puppetry, mime, all based on the story's theme and plot. For example, after shared choral reading of the Navajo chant "There Are No People Song," the students might videotape the chant or perform it for visitors or another class.

7. Adapt trade books. After much exposure to a book through shared reading, encourage students to innovate on the literary structure of a shared book by writing or dictating adaptations of favorite books or poems. They can make their adapted trade book as a class, in small groups, or independently with you or another adult. For example, the students who read the Navajo chant might collect and write down chants from their own cultures of origins.

Resources for Shared Reading

Barrett, F. L. (1982). *A teacher's guide to shared reading.* Richmond Hill, Ontario, Canada: Scholastic TAB Publications, Ltd.

Holdoway, D. (1979). *The foundations of literacy.* Auckland: Ashton Educational.

McCloskey, M. L., Linse, C. & Hooper, S. (1991). *Teaching Language, Literature and Culture*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Smith, F. (1975). *Comprehension and learning: A conceptual framework for teachers.* New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

TEACHING STORY STRUCTURE[7]

Students learning to read English as a second language have some disadvantages in relation to native speakers. ESL students lack background knowledge of the culture, which is the context of written and spoken English. Furthermore, a particular content schema or structure may be culturally specific and not be part of the language learner's cultural background.

Through careful choices of texts and careful introduction of these choices, teachers can both provide students with literature which they can comprehend and help students to acquire the necessary background cultural knowledge and schemata of written English. The particular schema which is addressed in this section is that of story structure or story grammar. Native language speakers often have acquired a concept of how a story is structured in their language before they reach school age. The grammar of a narrative has been described in a number of ways, but is usually given steps similar to these seven:

(1) *setting* - where the story takes place
(2) *initial event* - the event that spurs the protagonist into action
(3) *simple reaction* - an emotional response to the initial event
(4) *goal-setting* - a decision to do something about the problem set up by the initial event
(5) *attempt to reach the goal* - the main character tries to solve the problem
(6) *outcomes* - consequences of the attempts
(7) *reaction* - the protagonist's reaction to the events in the story.

Advanced learners, with help and support, can understand and use all seven steps. For beginning and intermediate students, use simpler story "maps" (see 6c) to help students understand the structure of stories and write their own.

What kinds of literature will help your students acquire story structure? The following literature types are appropriate both as read-aloud selections and as books for the beginning reader:

1. Select reading materials that reflect students' cultural backgrounds. Include stories that take place in students' native countries, stories that students may have heard or read in their native languages, stories with characters from the students' native cultures, or stories about children or adults who experience a new culture. Sources for multicultural literature are found in the suggested resources list.

2. Select books about experiences common to all cultures and about cultures and people represented in the class. Student's own writings are also excellent sources.

3. Select books that provide students with needed cultural background. Think about experiences that students need to learn about in order to deal with their new culture and select literature or help students write language experience stories about them.

[7] McCloskey, M. L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies.* Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

4. Choose predictable books and poems. Because predictable books have student-oriented vocabulary and content, and repetition of language, they are very appropriate for beginning and intermediate students. By the time a teacher has read a few pages of one of these books, students begin to predict what will come next. Use well-illustrated works when possible. Pictures provide visual cues to the story structure.

5. Choose wordless picture books. Wordless books like those by John Goodall and Anno tell a story with pictures, and give the student valuable opportunities to construct the language to go with them.

6. Encourage narrow reading. Reading on a single topic or focusing on works of a single author will help minimize interference from the text, and thus be more efficient for second language learners. If your students take a liking to Langston Hughes, read them as many of his works as you can find. Research and share with the students some background information on the author. Libraries have reference series to help you, e.g., *Something About the Author*. If a group of students is interested in tornados, help them find every book and article they can on the topic. Let them become experts.

What can you do when presenting the literature to help students acquire story structure?

a. Use cueing strategies. Use verbal cueing strategies such as changes in voice for various characters, pauses to indicate changes in events and dramatic moments, and exaggerated intonation for key words and concepts. Use nonverbal cueing strategies, such as pointing to illustrations or parts of illustrations and using facial expressions, gestures, and actions to accompany key events in the story.

b. Use questions as a "scaffolding" technique to clarify meanings of words, to develop concepts, to encourage both literal and inferential comprehension, to relate the story to the students' own experiences, and to bring out the story map, or the elements of the story grammar (examples of both are included below).

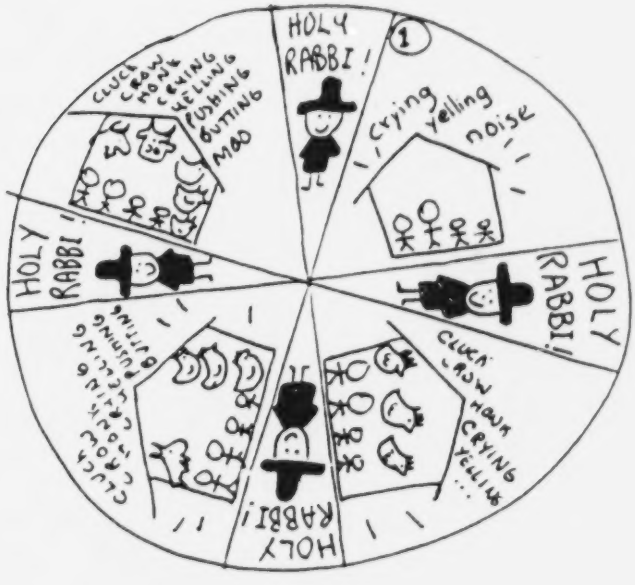
c. Use diagrams or charts of the story map to provide students with visual pictures of the structures of stories. After you have introduced some simple story diagrams, use the strategy inductively by having students suggest the parts of the map as you draw them. Students can also make their own maps and diagrams of popular stories. Story diagrams are an appropriate pre-writing as well as pre-reading and review strategy. Diagrams of three stories of varying complexity in structure might look something like the examples shown.

Line story - the story has a cumulative linear sequence.

THERE WAS AN OLD WOMAN WHO SWALLOWED A FLY

Circle Story -- the story ends back where it begins

IT COULD ALWAYS BE WORSE
A Yiddish folktale by Margot Zemach



More complex story with all the basic elements. Most folktales, short stories, and novels include these parts, sometimes in repeated and more complex patterns. As you begin, help students pick out essential elements. The diagram can become more and more complex as stories and students' understanding of concepts deepens.

	JOHN HENRY[8]
SETTING/CHARACTERS	John Henry, steel driving man, is born. Railroad is his destiny.
INITIAL EVENT/PROBLEM	The Captain introduces the steam drill.
REACTION	John Henry is angry.
GOAL-SETTING	John Henry swears to beat the steam drill.
ATTEMPT TO REACH GOAL	John Henry races the steam drill, driving spikes through rock in the tunnel.
OUTCOMES	After a great struggle, the steam drill breaks down. John Henry wins.
REACTION/RESOLUTION	John Henry dies from the effort, but is recognized by all.

[8] In *Prentice Hall Literature: Silver* (1989). Englewood cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. pp. 662-666.

Resources for Teaching Story Structure

Carrell, P. L. & Eisterhold, J. C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17 (4), 553-573.

Goodman, K. S. (1967). Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 4,126-135.

Jacobson, H. & McMullen, K. (1986). The development of children's story-structures: Qualitative or quantitative change? Presented to the 16th Annual Symposium of the Jean Piaget Society. Philadelphia, PA.

Johnson, P. (1982). Effects on reading comprehension of building background knowledge. TESOL Quarterly, 16 (4), 503-516.

Olson, M. W. (1986). Making the most of reading aloud: Use a story map. *Dimensions*. 12 (3), 12-14, 26.

Schmidt, V.E. & McNeill, E. (1978). *Cultural awareness: A resource bibliography*. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Steffensen, M., Joag-dev, C. & Anderson, R. (1979). A cross-cultural perspective on reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*. 15 (10), 10-29.

Tiedt, P. L. & Tiedt, I. M. (1979). *Multicultural teaching: A Handbook of activities, information, and resources*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.

PROCESS WRITING IN MULTICULTURAL, MULTILINGUAL CLASSROOMS[9]

An integrated approach to writing has many advantages for students' language learning. Students begin reading with words that they have written and that are in their own speaking vocabularies. They learn reading skills, such as phonics, in a purposeful, meaningful context and so are more prepared to comprehend what they read. Students become more independent language learners through writing and become aware of their own writing strategies. They learn to use many resources including peers, teachers, other adults, and reference works. Students who write frequently learn spelling and grammar skills better as they use them in their composition than when they are drilled in these skills without the opportunity to compose.

Students need daily experiences with composition. Like learning to speak a first or second language, learning to write is a gradual developmental process. Just as we are thrilled with a baby's first attempts at speech, we should be delighted by a student's first attempts to write. For beginning students, composition may consist of dictating and/or writing in a native language. Students may progress to labeling pictures in English and writing important words, such as family names. Gradually, given encouragement and ample opportunity to write, students begin to write longer pieces about topics that are familiar and important to them.

Begin by creating a climate that promotes writing. A writing classroom is a classroom where:

1. Students' writing is valued. Teachers are genuinely interested in what students have to say and encourage this interest among students. Students' attempts to write and to progress in writing are celebrated, and mistakes are seen as a natural part of the development process. Select a place of honor -- an author's chair or stool -- where students can sit when they share their writing with the class. You may sit in this same chair when you represent the author in read-aloud activities.

2. Students write frequently for an authentic audience. Their writing is meaningful, purposeful, and about topics they choose. Not only teachers, but peers, parents, and persons in the school and greater community provide an audience for student writing.

3. The environment is language- and literature-rich. Students are surrounded with examples of good writing by both published authors and peers. Students are read to daily, and books, authors, and writing are hot topics for discussion.

4. The environment is print-rich. The physical environment offers many reasons and opportunities to read and write. The room has interesting charts, books, labeled posters and written instructions or rebus signs and symbols to follow directions at a learning center. Much of the writing posted around the room is the students' own work. Students have many occasions to write. Beginning students might sign their names on an attendance sheet in the morning

[9] McCloskey, M. L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

and write or copy their own notes to parents to give them important information about school events. Intermediate and advanced students might write messages to teachers and peers, letters to request information on a topic they are studying, records of their favorite sports teams, essays for job or school applications, letters to penpals and family members, or journal entries about literature and content areas.

5. Students write in many modes: lists, informative pieces, personal narratives, descriptions of persons, scenes, or events, directions, reports, notes, outlines, letters, poems, jokes, etc. Your students are very different from one another; a wide range of writing activities will help you address each student's learning style.

The Writing Process

Six steps in the writing process are described here: prewriting, drafting, sharing or confering, revising, editing, and publishing. Not all steps are used with all types of writing; neither are all used with every piece a student writes. Certain stages may be changed or omitted depending on the student's age and proficiency at writing. For example, young children or inexperienced writers are not expected to use revision extensively and often publish "first drafts." Experienced writers, on the other hand, often do not need elaborately structured prewriting experiences but can prepare to write privately.

Step 1: Prewriting

Prewriting experiences help students to develop the need and desire to write and to acquire information or content for writing, as well as necessary vocabulary, syntax, and language structures. To help students get ready to write, provide:

a. Talk and listening time, including language experience activities.

b. Shared experiences such as trips, plays, interviews, cooking demonstrations, or films.

c. Wide exposure to literature appropriate to the students' age and language proficiency. For beginning second language learners, include predictable books and wordless books.

d. Drama activities, including role playing, mime, and storytelling.

e. Opportunities to study, discuss, and map story patterns and structures (see Story Structure).

f. Using semantic mapping to elicit vocabulary and organize ideas.

g. Opportunities for students to prepare for writing by exploring what they know -- their own personal experiences or subjects they have studied in depth.

h. "Freewriting" -- having students write anything that comes to them, without stopping, for a short period of time.

i. "Sunshine Outline" -- this graphic technique for outlining helps students to generate basic information to prepare for writing by asking the basic newswriter questions. The students draw rays coming from a sun and write a question word on each ray: who, what, when, where, why, how. Then the students write a phrase or two about the writing topic which answers each question and use this outline to write their pieces.

LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE CONTENT AREAS[11]

Language teaching to students who are acquiring English should take place all day in all content areas. These students have no time to waste. They cannot wait until they are proficient in English to learn content area concepts and vocabulary. Although their thinking skills have developed in another language up to this point, students who are acquiring English are capable of thought processes as sophisticated as those of their peers. They have valuable knowledge that is waiting to be tapped, and they need to continue developing their high-level thinking skills. What's more, the adaptations that you make in your content-area teaching to accommodate second language learners will benefit proficient English-speaking peers as well.

1. Suggestions for adaptation of content area teaching:

a. Provide "survival" vocabulary and structures for the content area. Set up activities and centers to help students learn basic terms so that they can understand a subject. For example, place language master cards with prerequisite terms and a language master at the learning center for the use of students who need them.

b. Make use of peer tutors and peer study or problem-solving groups. An able reader can study for a test by paraphrasing the textbook for a less proficient student, and both will increase their knowledge of the content.

c. Make the learning concrete. Supplement the textbook by bringing in objects related to the area being studied; invite in visiting experts; use games and role play participation in learning; and provide many hands-on experiences. Use graphs, charts, and checklists with picture cues to help language learners follow what you are teaching.

d. Offer a variety of modes for students with a variety of learning styles. Teaching straight from the content-area textbook is not adequate for second language learners. Use pictures, films, videos, slides, games, role-play, and the listening center as well as reading and writing.

2. Suggestions for particular content areas:

Science

Help students who are acquiring English to show their strengths through science. These students may be excellent observers, though describing what they observe may be more difficult. Keeping records of data allows language learners to take advantage of their strengths while working with more proficient students who will act as language models. Lack of knowledge in English doesn't interfere with students' powers of observation and analysis or with their ability to draw pictures of what they have observed.

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[11] McCloskey, M. L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

Assign students to small groups for experiments. Students will feel comfortable practicing the written and spoken language needed for working together and organizing information.

Have students present the information gained in experiments in a variety of language-oriented ways. Individual or group oral presentations give students a chance to share and discuss their conclusions. Written records and reports allow teachers and/or more proficient peers to work with language learners on dictating or writing skills. Illustrations of the sequence of events in an experiment do not require a great deal of previous reading or writing experience and give language learners the chance to use simple labels to learn vocabulary and document their first-hand research.

Social Studies

In social studies involve the classroom, the school, the neighborhood, and even the larger community in learning experiences. Having "experts" come in for adult "show and tell" can initiate lively discussion and can become a jumping-off point for language experience activities, writing, reading, and art projects. Field trips help students to achieve social studies goals in an exciting way.

New language learners must begin to find their way in the new community. Set up a store to help them learn about the exchange of money and products; have them role play situations in which they require a service from someone in the community, e.g., applying for a learner's license to drive, reporting a burglary to the police or requesting repairs from a landlord. Use public transportation to get to various sites for walking tours, create and label maps showing how to get to important places such as the public library, the county or city office buildings, the motor vehicles bureau, or historical sites. Interview visiting "experts" on local history. Invite representatives of local government to come in and explain how the government works and the important role that students will soon play as voters. Use charts and diagrams to show divisions of city, state, and federal government (see Semantic Mapping strategy). Use related books and storytelling as a means of learning about various cultures and historical changes. After sharing these stories with students, have them role play important events.

Take advantage of students' knowledge of other cultures by having them serve as resources on aspects of their cultures of origin, by sharing crafts and/or history, or by telling about their own experiences traveling to this country and adapting to a new culture. Shared cooking experiences not only teach important aspects of the culture being learned -- foods, preparation, serving and eating customs, and vocabulary -- but also can celebrate the cultures from which the recipes originate. Being an expert, for once, instead of a beginner, can help build students' positive self-concepts.

Mathematics

Do not make the mistake of thinking that mathematics does not involve language. Students with little English may be good mathematicians. However, in order to develop higher mathematical skills and to apply them, students must learn language, and specifically, the language of mathematics.

Help students to apply their mathematical skills in other content areas and in real-life situations. Incorporate language into math by playing word games with mathematical terms, having students interpret charts and graphs, having them explain the procedure by which they reached an answer, and giving examples of ways they can use skills outside of school. Language learners with good mathematical skills can develop language skills by tutoring others.

Make mathematical learning more accessible to language learners by using many manipulatives. Basic mathematical concepts and images are developed by manipulation of real things. Use manufactured math materials such as attribute blocks, counters, base ten blocks, Cuisenaire rods, tangram pieces, geoboards, and pattern blocks as well as found math materials. Look for geometric patterns in nature. Investigate probability by observing cars as they go by the school. What is the probability that the next car will be red? A Porsche? A red Porsche? Find authentic reasons to use mathematical operations, e.g., have students take a survey of cafeteria food preferences, graph data collected, analyze results and report back to the dietician. Using individual and cooperative activities in place of work sheets will increase language and mathematical learning for all your students.

Resources for Teaching Language in the Content Areas

Pellowski, A. (1984). *The story vine: A source book of unusual and easy-to-tell stories from around the world.* New York: Collier Books.

Smith, R.F. (1988). Wheels and things: Developing Preschool Science Learning Centers. *Dimensions, 17*:1, 10-12.

Tiedt, P.L. & Tiedt, I.M. (1979). *Multicultural teaching: A handbook of activities, information, and resources.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Torbe, M. (General Ed.). (1981,2). *Language Teaching and Learning Series.* London: Word Lock Educational. This series includes books on the Climate for Learning, Geography, English, Science, Mathematics, and History.

Baratta-Lorton, M. (1972,9). *Workjobs I and II: Activity-centered learning for early childhood education.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

McCloskey, M. L. & Enright, D. S. (1985). *From rainbows to rhythms to runaway cookies. The Garden Hills curriculum guide, Vol. III.* Atlanta, GA: Georgia State University.

McCloskey, M. L. (Ed.). (1987). *Turn on units: English as a second language content area curriculum in math, science and computer science.* Atlanta, GA: Georgia State University with the Georgia State Department of Education.

Mohan, B. A. (1987). *Language and content.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

DRAMA

Pretending comes naturally to children and provides a wonderful means to learn and use new vocabulary and structures. Drama reaches across cultures and brings students together in non-threatening, shared group activities. Dramatic activities promote individual learning responses and encourage creative, flexible thinking and problem solving. A variety of responses are considered "correct" in these dramatic situations, and students can feel secure taking risks. Drama in the classroom promotes attending to both verbal and non-verbal communications, which in turn promotes language acquisition.

Incorporate these dramatic activities into your classroom:

1. Pantomime. Non-verbal communication puts both English and non--English speakers at the same disadvantage. Give students situations to act out and ask the audience to name actions or emotions portrayed by the actors. Use wordless books, in which the actions are already pictorially portrayed, as scripts. Progress to simple dialogue skits.

2. Puppetry. Students who are acquiring English are often more willing to take risks when talking to puppets than when talking to fluent adults or peers. Students feel free to experiment with voices and language sounds without fear of embarrassment. Use a puppet as a "teacher assistant"; have puppets available for improvisation in the drama center and help students create their own puppets and short puppet plays relating to a theme of study. Another advantage of puppetry is that it is used around the world and is familiar to most students.

3. Creative Dramatics. Bring multi-ethnic literature into the classroom through dramatizations of fables, myths, and folklore of a variety of cultures. You or a student who is a strong reader can narrate a story while others participate in simple dialogue and actions. Later on, small cooperative groups can develop and rehearse their own skits.

4. Drama Center. Have a corner of the room reserved for dramatic play. As themes change, the drama center can change from post office to covered wagon to medieval castle. Have a variety of props related to the theme of study available for spontaneous theatre at the drama center. If you're studying food groups, set up a grocery store. Near Halloween, create a haunted house. If you're learning about transportation, set up a taxi stand, an airplane interior, or a train station.

5. Role Play. Role playing is natural to young children. It reduces the inhibitions of older students because they can step out of themselves and pretend to be someone else. Using these activities gives students a chance to rehearse useful interactions in a safe environment and provides students with opportunities both to see and be peer language models. Use role play to practice interviewing before a field trip, to practice giving classroom tours when visitors are

[12] McCloskey, M. L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies.* Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

TIPS FOR TEACHING THROUGH THE CONTENT AREAS

1. Plan lessons that are related to your students' lives, utilize a lot of visuals, and provide for "hands on" kinds of involvement. For example, drawing, coloring, and labeling maps in geography and pinpointing where the students came from is far more valuable than simply listening to a talk about maps.

2. Communicate individually with your students as much as time permits. Avoid using complicated words or complex sentences. Keep the volume and intonation as normal as possible. Use few idioms. Incorporate a lot of body language. These strategies will be used subconsciously, for the most part, by those whose main goal is to communicate.

3. If possible, use a "satisfactory/unsatisfactory" grade option until your ESL students are able to compete successfully with native speakers. Your students may be ready sooner than expected, since many of them adapt very rapidly. It is important to remember that often the students, particularly those who are older, will already have a high level of academic understanding in the first language and may even surpass native speakers once they have proficiency in the new language.

4. Record your lectures or talks on tape. Your students need to be able to listen to them as many times as necessary for understanding.

5. Ask some of your native-speaking students to simplify the textbook by rewriting the chapters. The job can be made as easy as possible by giving each native-speaking student just a few pages to simplify. The simplified materials not only aid your ESL students but other students who may find the regular text too difficult. The students who do the rewriting benefit also in that the task serves as a review for them.

6. Choose native-speaking students who take effective, comprehensible notes to duplicate them for your ESL students. By this means, the latter can be provided with study aids.

7. Try to answer all questions that your students ask but avoid overly detailed explanation. Simple answers which get right to the point will be understood best. If possible, point to objects and pictures, or demonstrate actions to help get the meaning across.

8. If you are in a situation in which lectures are appropriate, try to make them as comprehensible as possible. Emphasize key words and phrases through intonation and repetition. Summarize on the chalkboard or on an overhead transparency as you are talking. Give concrete examples. Use pictures and charts, map

out ideas, use gestures, acting out, simplifications, explanation of ideas, or whatever is necessary to ensure understanding. Definitions, comparisons, and the like can be incorporated in the lectures to clarify new words and concepts. For example, in a history lesson you might say, "The government's funds were depleted. It was almost out of money." Thus the phrase "funds were depleted" is made more comprehensible.

9. Check to see that what you are saying is understood. Frequently ask questions such as, "Do you understand?" or "Do you have any questions?" and be very aware of the feedback you are getting. Blank stares or puzzled looks are sure signs that you are not being understood. Often it is better to ask more specific questions directly related to the preceding utterance. For example, after saying, "In Arizona rainfall is minimal during most of the year," you might check for understanding by asking, "Does it rain much in Arizona?" Asking a question such as this to confirm interpretation is yet another means by which your students can be exposed to new words and concepts without losing the meaning of the message.

10. Encourage your students to use their bilingual dictionaries when necessary or to ask questions when they don't understand important concepts. Help them to guess at meanings <u>first by using context</u>. Assure them that they do not have to understand every word to comprehend the main idea.

11. Reinforce key concepts over and over in a variety of situations and activities. Hearing about the concepts once or twice is not enough. Your students need to be exposed to them several times through a wide range of experiences in order for internalization to take place.

12. Whenever possible, utilize tutors who speak the native language of your students. Such help is especially important to students operating at beginning to intermediate stages.

13. Request that appropriate content-area books be ordered for the library in the students' native languages. These can be particularly useful to your students in comprehending the concepts while the second language is being mastered. They also provide your students with a means of maintaining and developing skills in the native language.

14. Become informed as much as possible on the various cultures represented by your students. Knowing how particular students might react to classroom events and being able to interpret nonverbal symbols could help prevent misunderstanding and confusion.

15. Acknowledge and incorporate their cultures whenever possible. For instance, differing number systems can be introduced in math, customs and traditions in social science, various medicines in natural science, native dances and games in

celebrations, languages can be demonstrated for appreciation, and literature with translations can be shared.

16. Prepare your students for your lessons and reading assignments. You might ask them what they already know about the subject. Encourage them to look for main ideas by giving them a framework or outline beforehand. Ask them to predict outcomes and then to verify their predictions.

17. Increase possibilities for success. Alternating difficult activities with easier ones allows your ESL students to experience early successes. For example, in natural science one activity might be to create a diary that Neil Armstrong might have kept on his trip to the moon; the next assignment might be to make a list of the personal items including food that he might have taken with him. Of course, the tasks as a whole should gradually become more academically challenging as the students become more proficient.

Teaching ESL in the Content Areas: Linguistic Adaptation of Materials for LEP Students. from the National Origin Desegregation Office of Equal Educational Opportunity. New Jersey Department of Education.

ASSESSING LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

ASSESSING LANGUAGE MINORITY MIGRANT STUDENTS

Assessment is a key piece of any educational program. This holds true for migrant education programs as well. You will face some unique and challenging questions as you plan assessment for your migrant students.

Some of your migrant students will use a language other than English at home; they can be considered language minority students. Their language skills, and those of their families, may vary tremendously. Some students may speak English well and perform very well in school. Others may be orally proficient in English and their home language, but experience some difficulty with academic English. Yet other students may know no English at all. Likewise, some migrant parents may speak English but not be able to read or write; others may speak no English but may be literate in their home language.

Your challenge will be to determine, as well as possible, the language proficiency of your migrant students in order to provide a quality education for all, including those language minority students who are limited in their ability to listen, speak, read, and write in English.

This section is not intended to be a comprehensive guide to assessing language minority students. We hope it will help you organize your own thoughts and questions regarding this complicated task and provide some suggestions for getting started.

PURPOSES FOR ASSESSMENT

You have a variety of purposes for assessing your migrant students. Those purposes include:

1. determining which migrant students can be considered language minority;
2. determining which language minority students are limited English proficient (LEP);
3. determining appropriate placement for new students;
4. determining students' progress in learning English as a second language;
5. determining students' progress in learning their home language;
6. determining students' progress in learning specific concepts and content taught in the classroom.

Your purpose for assessment will help determine the most useful assessment procedure. No single test will do the job. The purposes for assessment listed above present complex questions; there are few simple answers. However, the following guide will help you define your assessment purposes and choose from some recommended procedures, ranging from informal measures to published standardized tests.

IDENTIFYING LANGUAGE MINORITY STUDENTS

Why should you identify language minority students?

This initial screening process will help you identify students who come from a non-English background or those who are language minority students. Some of your migrant students may have a Spanish surname and appear to be Mexican-American. Those same students and their families may use English exclusively and proficiently. Such students can not be considered language minority and their educational needs will be quite different from the Mexican-American student whose family uses Spanish exclusively. Once you know which of your migrant students are language minority, you will know which ones to further assess for limited English proficiency.

How can you identify language minority students?

A very simple way to do this is to add a Home Language Survey to the papers parents must complete to enroll their child in your school. The Home Language Survey can ask some simple questions:

PURPOSES FOR ASSESSMENT (continued)

> Does your child speak or understand a language other than English? ☐ yes ☐ no

If yes, what is that language? _____
If yes, what is the first language your child learned to speak and understand? _____

> Is there a language other than English spoken in your home? ☐ yes ☐ no

If yes, what is that language? _____

It is best to have the Home Language Survey in your students' home language as well as English for those parents who are literate in their home language. Or, you can simply ask the parents the questions during the school registration process. An interpreter may make all involved more comfortable and expedite the process. Then place the Survey in the child's file.

IDENTIFYING LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

Why should you identify limited English proficient students?

A quick assessment of English language proficiency will tell you which of your language minority migrant students may:

> need English as a second language (ESL) instruction;

> reasonably be expected to have difficulty in the regular classroom due to limited English proficiency.

How can you assess English language proficiency?

Effective procedures for assessing English language proficiency range from informal oral interviews to published standardized tests of reading and writing ability. Some suggestions are:

Oral Interview;
Story-Retelling;
Writing Sample;
Functional Language Assessment;
Boston Cloze Reading Test
from:
Assessment of Language Minority Students: A Handbook for Educators
by Hamayan, Kwiat, and Perlman
publisher: Illinois Resource Center, 1985

Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test (IPT)
from: Ballard and Tighe, Inc.
580 Atlas Street
Brea, CA 92621

Language Assessment Scales (LAS)
from: CTB/McGraw-Hill
Del Monte Research Park
2500 Garden Road
Monterey, CA 93940

ASSESSING PROGRESS IN LEARNING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

Why should you assess your students' progress in learning English?

Assessing the progress your migrant students make in learning English as a second language will prove useful to:

- motivate your students by helping them recognize their achievements;
- help teachers assess their instruction;
- help evaluate your total migrant education program.

How can you assess progress in learning English as a second language?

Learning language is a complex task that involves listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Oral language is a necessary but insufficient measure of a migrant student's progress in learning English as a second language.

Following are some assessment tools you may find helpful. But, remember that language is complex and no one test will give a complete picture of your students' language proficiency.

Oral Language

Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL)
from: Checkpoint Systems
1558 N. Waterman, Suite C
San Bernardino, CA 92404

Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test (IPT)
from: Ballard and Tighe, Inc.
580 Atlas Street
Brea, CA 92621

Language Assessment Battery (LAB)
from: Riverside Publishing
8420 W. Bryn Mawr Ave.
Chicago, IL 60631

Language Assessment Scales (LAS)
from: CTB/McGraw-Hill
Del Monte Research Park
2500 Garden Road
Monterey, CA 93940

Literacy

Boston Cloze Reading Test
from: Assessment of Language Minority Students: A Handbook for Educators by Hamayan, Kwiat, and Perlman; published by the Illinois Resource Center, 1985

Writing Sample
from: Assessment of Language Minority Students: A Handbook for Educators (reference above)

Language Assessment Battery (LAB)
from: Riverside Publishing
(reference above)

Language Assessment Scales (LAS)
from: CTB McGraw-Hill
(reference above)

ASSESSING STUDENT PROGRESS IN LEARNING THEIR HOME LANGUAGE

Why should you assess students' progress in learning their home language?

Studying their home language does not hinder students' ability to learn English. Given the value of multilingualism in our increasingly cosmopoilitan society, some migrant programs emphasize proficiency in two languages--English and the students' home language. If your migrant program helps language minority students continue to learn in their home language, you may want to assess this aspect of instruction.

How can you assess student progress in learning their home language?

You will, of course, need professional staff--or a trained interpreter--proficient in the students' home language for administering, scoring, and interpreting the assessment. For a list of tests and assessment procedures--in a variety of languages, contact:

BILINGUAL EVALUATION ASSISTANCE CENTER

WEST - Dr. Paul Martinez
1-800-247-4269

EAST - Dr. John Boswell
(202) 994-7117

HOW CAN WE PROMOTE HOME LANGUAGE USE?

IN SCHOOL

- Encouraging educators to use a curriculum which reflects the culture, values, interests, experiences, and concerns of language minority children.
- Helping children feel pride in their home language and cultural heritage.
- Introducing all students to the joys of cultural diversity and the desirability of learning more than one language.
- Promoting two-way bilingual programs.
- Hiring and developing of culturally experienced and bilingual staff.
- Raising teacher expectations of students who have a limited grasp of English.
- Empowering parents and communicating with them in their home language.
- Ensuring that educators don't give too strong an English only message to language minority students and their families.

IN THE HOME

- Developing supportive program practices that strengthen family bonds and the parents' role in their child's development and education.
- Educating parents about the importance of using the home language with their children; and that the continuing development of the home language strengthens, rather than impedes, their child's ability to learn English.

ASSESSING CONTENT AREA AND CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Why should you assess concept areas and conceptual development?

You will teach your migrant students more than language. So you will want to know how well they are learning these math concepts, scientific knowledge, and social studies. English language tests can't provide adequate information and often an appropriate standardized norm-referenced test or criterion-referenced test does not exist. You can, however, gather evaluation information to build a general profile of each student's level of development to estimate placement, expectations, and progress.

How can you assess concept area and conceptual development?

While your limited English proficient students are learning English, be flexible in assessing content and conceptual development. Consider:

- translating tests into the students' home language;
- using bilingual staff or a trained interpreter to help interview students; or test them orally;
- providing students with alternative ways to demonstrate their learning, such as building a model, drawing a map, or conducting an experiment.

3. STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Special Education

As with other populations, one expects a range of disabilities among limited English proficient students. The difficulty is often in determining whether or not the learning problem is related only to the language or whether it is also related to intellectual, emotional, sensory, or physical impairments

Students learning English, because of their cultural and linguistic background, have special instructional needs. These needs should not be confused with a disability, nor should they serve as a basis for referral to a special education program (Ortiz and Maldonado-Colon, 1986). Overreferrals can be prevented by a focus on prereferral strategies. The student support team (SST) is the appropriate vehicle for designing and implementing strategies to assist the student in succeeding in the regular classroom, or to make a referral to special education. If an SST determines that a language minority student should be referred to special education, the student should undergo psychological testing conducted by qualified bilingual/bicultural evaluators familiar with the influence of second language status on the assessment process (Nuttal, Landurand and Goldman, 1984). Specific procedures for implementing the SST process and the special education assessment are provided in the Rules of the Georgia Board of Education, Division for Exceptional Students, Special Education Rules and Procedures (1990).

All special students, regardless of the type or degree of the type or degree of disability, share certain rights and needs, including:

(1) the right to a free and appropriate public education

(2) the right to an Individualized Education Program (IEP) specifying the student's unique needs and the special education and related services the student is to receive

(3) the need to have cognitive, linguistic, academic, and social/emotional characteristics considered and appropriate environmental modifications or adaptations made.

Effective IEPs for exceptional language minority students would account for all of the student's basic educational needs, including the need for ESOL instruction. The service provider or providers must draw from both fields to bring complete services to the student.

Resources on ESOL in Special Education

Cloud, N. (1988). ESL in Special Education. *ERIC Digest*, December. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Ortiz, A.A., and Maldonado-Colon, E. (1986). Reducing inappropriate referral of language minority students in special education. In Willig, A.C., and Greenberg, H.F. (Eds.), *Bilingualism and learning disabilities: Policy and practice for teachers and administrators*. New York: American Library Publishing Co., Inc.

Nuttal, E.V., Landurand, P.M., and Goldman, P. (1984). A critical look at testing and evaluation from a cross-cultural perspective. In Chinn, P. (Ed.) *Education of culturally and linguistically different exceptional children*. Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 256 103).

CROSS-CULTURAL

STRATEGIES

5. CROSS-CULTURAL STRATEGIES

Education that is multicultural recognizes, accepts, values, affirms and promotes individual diversity in a pluralistic setting. Further, the term "multicultural" embraces and accepts the interdependence of the many cultural groups within our country and the world at large; racial, ethnic, regional, religious, and socioeconomic groups, as well as men and women, the young and the old, and persons with disabilities.

Delaware Multicultural Education Institute

A shared culture binds people together, makes it easier for them to understand each other's behavior, and promotes effective communication. Since culture consists of a set of learned adaptations to the environment, it is not necessary to be born into a culture to share it with others. Nor is it necessary to belong exclusively to one narrow cultural group.

Culture in the classroom should be much more than holidays and food. The purpose of using cross-cultural strategies in the classroom is to help students from diverse backgrounds begin to understand and value each others' cultural perspectives. This makes them more comfortable in their classroom environment and thus able to learn more effectively.

Cross-cultural strategies are no longer being used exclusively in classrooms with students of different national origins. Many educators now see the value of a multicultural education for all students -- to help them value many kinds of diversity, as reflected in the Delaware definition. This section contains strategies to help you foster cross-cultural understanding in any educational setting.

Goals of Cross-Cultural Education

1. For students to develop and maintain pride in their varied cultures of origin.

2. For students to develop and maintain pride in the cultural diversity of the U.S. (Adapted from Enright & McCloskey, 1988)

Role of the Teacher

1. Become a student of culture who is sensitive to cultural nuances and who actively seeks knowledge about other cultures.

2. Actively promote a multicultural point of view, infusing cultural awareness, tolerance and an appreciation of differences into all aspects of classroom life.

3. Help students become students of culture, teaching them processes for studying culture and providing resources and information about culture as part of the curriculum. (Enright & McCloskey, p. 220.)

CULTURAL MISUNDERSTANDINGS

Why is it important to be aware of the cultural differences among your students and to incorporate cross-cultural strategies into your classroom? Consider the following examples of problems caused by a lack of awareness of cultural differences:

- A teacher of Navajo children on a reservation was surprised at her students' low scores on a national, standardized reading test. She went over the questions with them. One read: "Johnny's mother went to the refrigerator and saw that there was no milk. She gave Johnny a dollar. Johnny put on his jacket and went out the door. Where was he going?" The answer, of course, was "to the store". But the Navajo children answered, without exception, "to the backyard" - because that's where their families kept the cow! They had no trouble reading and understanding, but their ability to predict the "correct" answer (correct according to the test designers) was influenced by the ways their life experiences had differed from those of a suburban, mainstream child.

- An ESL teacher with students recently arrived from the Middle East, came to a lesson in the textbook on the use of "need" and "want". The lesson was based on vending machines - "I want a ham sandwich, so I need 3 quarters and a dime." None of the students, however, had ever seen a vending machine or had ever eaten ham, and could not imagine such a food that came out of a machine. The lesson was meaningless for them.

- A kindergarten teacher was going over colors. "What color is a banana?" she asked a Hispanic student. Someone translated that into "platano" for the student and the student answered "Green". "No, that's not right," said the teacher. Then she turned to an African-American student. "Do you know what color a banana is?" The student answered, "Brown." Again the teacher said, "No." Then she asked an Anglo child, and the child responded, "Yellow." "That's right," said the teacher. "A banana is yellow." Well, of course, a banana is green, then yellow, then brown - it depends on the stage of ripeness that you prefer. Also, a plantain (platano in Spanish) is a relative of the banana that stays mostly green.

GENERAL GUIDELINES

1. **Curriculum Materials** - choose materials that reflect the perspectives and contributions of a variety of cultural groups. Look for reading material translated from different languages or written by members of different cultural groups. Delightful literature and picture books by and about people from many countries are now available. Look for text and pictures that represent a variety of cultures fairly and accurately.

2. **Curriculum Content** - choose content that connects with student interests and experiential backgrounds. Make sure that content reflects cultural diversity.

3. **Multiple Perspectives** - Help students appreciate different ways of interpreting information. Value the contributions of students from other cultures even when they are different from the answers or interpretations you expect.

4. **Instructional Strategies** - Adapt to students' learning styles, academic skill levels and language proficiency levels. Try to present material through a variety of media and styles. Provide open-ended practice activities as well as those requiring one right answer.

5. **Language Diversity** - Promote multilingualism and its value. Let all students learn something about a new language, not just your ESL students.

6. **Student Evaluation** - Use informal/alternative assessment and observation to guide instruction. Be aware of what your assessment tools are really measuring - skills and knowledge mastery or English proficiency?

7. **Grouping Students** - Value and implement small group activities; be flexible in grouping practices. Research shows that students who work together to achieve a goal value each other more as partners.

8. **Visuals** - Consider and select visual displays from various microcultures. Avoid visuals that show only one cultural point of view (students are all white, for example) or that show your students' cultures negatively.

9. **Role Models** - Provide students with a diversity of role models filling both traditional and non-traditional roles.

10. **Home-School Relationships** - Build close relationships between family and school by sending positive, informative messages. Invite parents into your classrooms as a rich source of cultural and linguistic information.

11. **Extracurricular Activities** - Encourage student participation in activities that reflect their interests, both personal and perhaps cultural. (Adapted from Grant & Sleeter, 1989)

Storytelling

Ask students to tell a story, perhaps a folktale, that is popular in their culture. Allow them to tell it first in the native language, then in English. You might work with them on the English version before they deliver it to the class.

Students will develop confidence when allowed to try out a story in a language they know first. Their classmates will enjoy the story and may want to discuss how aspects of the story are similar to those of stories they know.

You might either have the storyteller write the story down afterwards, or assign a more English-proficient student to work with the storyteller to get the story in written form. Then publish a book of the class' stories.

Show and Tell

Ask students to bring in something representative of their culture or country - a map or flag, clothing, a craft, a holiday decoration, etc. They can tell the class what the object is used for, where it came from, how it was made, or why it is important in their culture.

You might have all the students write a brief description of the show and tell object for the day.

Visits from the Parents

Ask for volunteers among the parents to visit the classroom and teach the students a few words of another language or something about a cultural tradition.

Culture in Content Areas

Culture is content for every day, not just special days. Use every opportunity you find to communicate your multicultural perspective. In social studies, take a multicultural point of view. Supplement your text with materials that show the history and contributions of many peoples. In math and science, take into account other countries' notation systems that students may have learned and point out important contributers to the field from many cultures. Incorporate arts and craft styles from many countries into your fine arts program. In physical education, play games from a variety of countries. Read literature from and about your students' countries of birth.

Acting it Out

Ask the students to work in groups to plan a skit about a famous event in the history of their cultural group or in the life of a hero (George Washington cutting down the cherry tree, for example, is well known to most children who grow up in the U.S.). Have each group plan, practice and act out a skit.

Misunderstandings

Ask students to think of incidents that involved some kind of cultural misunderstanding and to share them with the class. Did the misunderstanding involve words, body language, rules of time or space, levels of formality, or stereotypes about a culture? Try to use the incidents to help all students see the importance of being flexible in encounters with people from another culture.

RESOURCES ON CROSS-CULTURAL STRATEGIES

Derman-Sparks, L., et al. (1989). *Anti-Bias Curriculum: Tools for Empowering Young Children.* Washington, DC: NAEYC.

Cummins, J. (1989). *Empowering Minority Students.* California Association for Bilingual Education, 926 J Street, Suite 610, Sacramento, CA 95814.

Enright, D. S. & McCloskey, M. L. (1988). *Integrating English: Developing English Language and Literacy in the Multilingual Classroom.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Grant, C. & Sleeter, C. (1989). *Turning on Learning.* Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.

Heath, S. B. (1983). *Ways with Words.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Holt, D. D. (Ed.). (1986). *Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students.* Sacramento: California Department of Education.

McCloskey, M. L., Linse, C. & Hooper, S. (1991). *Teaching Language, Literature and Culture.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Saville-Troike, M. et al. (1983). *Culture in the classroom: A handbook for field Experience Supervisors.* Council on Teacher Education, University of Illinois.

Tiedt, P. L. & Tiedt, I. M. (1990). *Multicultural Teaching: A Handbook of Activities, Information, and Resources, 2nd edition.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

The issue of parent involvement is an important one. The parents of migrant children are often difficult to contact because they live some distance from the central community and/or they speak little English. We should encourage parents as much as possible to become involved with the schools.

Mexican-Americans and Haitians, for a variety of cultural reasons, do not expect to participate in the formal education of their children. They feel that this is the responsibility of the schools. This does not mean that we shouldn't attempt to inform and educate parents about how to take a more active role in their children's education. Once they try it, they usually like it!

HOW TO INCLUDE THE PARENTS OF MIGRANT CHILDREN? OUTREACH

- Contact your local migrant director and/or migrant tutor who may be of help in a variety of ways.
- Find out the child's phone number (it is possible they don't have one) and ask if his or her parents speak English. If they do not, there is probably an older brother or sister who does.
- Send all written information home with your migrant child and translate important information into the parents' native language. Try asking for help from a local language teacher, bilingual student at your school, or a bilingual community member.
- Meeting with migrant parents takes some planning. You can arrange a meeting either where they live or at school through personnel contact or with help from your local migrant program. Try to arrange meetings at times when they are available--this will require some flexibility on your part.
- Involve migrant parents in all home learning activities you have planned for your class. It is especially advisable to instruct your students to read to them, be it in English or Spanish. Even parents who cannot read often enjoy this way of sharing time with their children and participating in their learning.
- Invite migrant parents to class as visitors. They would love to help you with a cultural activity such as celebrating one of their favorite holidays.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CONSULTING AND INVOLVING PARENTS

Suggestions for getting parents involved in your local district/school programs:

1) Encourage qualified migrant parents to volunteer for paraprofessional positions.

2) Use parents as resource persons.

3) Provide training for parents and teachers to build a partnership between home and school.

4) Educate parents about how they can play a more active role in their children's education.

5) Provide opportunities for the full participation of parents who lack literacy skills or whose native language is other than English.

6) Plan meetings and conferences at times convenient for the parents and provide transportation for them when necessary.

7) Schedule regular parent conferences and report on children's progress.

8) Hire, train, and utilize personnel who work with parents, coordinate parent activities, and make home contacts.

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Parent Involvement and The Education of Limited-English-Proficient Students

December, 1986

Over the last two decades, there has been a growing body of research evidence suggesting that there are important benefits to be gained by elementary age schoolchildren when their parents provide support, encouragement and direct instruction in the home, as well as maintain good communications with the school--activities which are known as "parent involvement". Such findings have led researchers and school personnel to apply parent involvement techniques at higher grade levels and with limited-English-proficient and non-English-proficient (LEP/NEP) students as well. The results to date have been encouraging.

What Activities Constitute Parent Involvement?

In general, parents may become involved by:

- providing a home environment that supports children's learning needs;
- volunteering to provide assistance in the school as teachers' aides, secretaries, or in other roles;
- becoming activists and decision-makers in organizations such as the local PTA/PTO, or community advocacy groups that advise local school boards and school districts;
- attending school-sponsored activities;
- maintaining open channels of communication with the teacher(s) and continually monitoring children's progress in school;
- tutoring the children at home, using specific learning activities designed by the teacher to reinforce work being done in school (Epstein, 1986).

While most of the activities listed above are undertaken on the initiative of parents, the last activity--parent-as-tutor involvement--is, or should be, initiated by the teacher. Schools with newly-established parent involvement programs have noted that parents are willing to become involved, but that they do not know *how* to help their children with academic tasks at home, and in general, are fearful of doing more harm than good. To counteract this, the teacher must maintain contact with the parents, giving specific assistance with materials and tutoring techniques that will successfully reinforce the work being done in school (Simich, 1986; Epstein, 1985a).

Parent involvement in the education of high school students, on the other hand, requires that the parent become co-learner, facilitator and collaborator, a means of support as the high school-age student develops independence and explores future educational options.

What Are Some Special Aspects of LEP/NEP Parent Involvement?

For the growing numbers of limited- or non-English proficient parents, parent involvement of any kind in the school process is a new cultural concept. Moreover, attempts by teachers and school officials to involve such parents in the education of their children is very often interpreted as a call for interference. The overwhelming majority of LEP/NEP parents believe that the school has not only the qualifications, but the responsibility to educate their children, and that any amount of parent "interference" is certain to be counter-productive. The most imporant task, then, in involving LEP/NEP parents in their children's education is to acculturate them to the meaning of parent involvement in their new social environment.

While most LEP/NEP parents do not have the English language proficiency to engage in many of the typical parent involvement activities, they may be very successfully involved in parent-school collaboration at home. These parents can be taught to reinforce educational concepts in the native language and/or English. Additionally, bilingual community liaisons should be available to bridge language and cultural differences between home and school. An added advantage, of course, is that LEP/NEP parents improve their own general knowledge, language and survival skills as a result of their participation in the program.

What Evidence Is There to Support The Need for Parent Involvement?

Epstein (1985b) has concluded, "the evidence is clear that parental encouragement, activities and interest at home, and parental participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement, even after the students' ability and family socioeconomic status are taken into account." Moreover, there may be evidence to support the conclusion that the most useful variety of parent involvment is the contact that parents have with their children in the home when such contact is used to encourage and aid school achievement. Significant findings from several parent involvement programs show that:

- Parent involvement in academic activities with children at home consistently and significantly improves parents' knowledge and expertise in helping their children, as well as their ability to effectively evaluate teachers' merits (Bennett, 1986);

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)
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- Direct parental involvement at home with children's school work has positive effects on such things as school attendance, classroom behavior, and parent teacher relations (Gillum, 1977, Rich et al., 1979, Comer, 1980);
- Students who are part of parent involvement programs show higher reading achievement than children who are not. Hewison and Tizard (1980) found that "children encouraged to read to their parents, and to talk with their parents about their reading, had markedly higher reading gains than children who did not have this opportunity." Moreover, small group instruction during the school day by highly competent specialists *did not produce* gains comparable to those obtained in parental involvement programs. Results of a longitudinal study of 300 3rd and 5th grade students in Baltimore City show that from fall to spring, students whose teachers were leaders in the use of parent involvement made greater gains in reading achievement than did students whose teachers were not recognized for encouraging parent involvement (Epstein, 1985b).

Do These Findings Apply to LEP/NEP Students?

In the study conducted by Hewison and Tizard mentioned above, several of the participating parents were non-English proficient and/or illiterate, a condition that neither prevented the parents from collaborating with the school, nor the children from showing marked improvement in reading ability.

A more recent study, the three-year Trinity-Arlington Teacher and Parent Training for School Success Project, has shown the most comprehensive findings to date concerning parent involvement and limited-English proficiency. This project, the result of a collaboration between Trinity College in Washington, DC and the Arlington, VA Public Schools, was designed to facilitate the acquisition of English language skills by high school LEP students from four language backgrounds (Khmer, Lao, Spanish and Vietnamese) through the development of supportive relationships among the students, parents and school staff. The role of the parent-as tutor was stressed and facilitated by community liaisons proficient in the native language of the parents. Parents were shown how to collaborate, to be co-learners with their high school-age children in the completion of specially-designed home lessons from the Vocationally-Oriented Bilingual Curriculum (VOBC), a supplement to the ESL program which was in use at the implementation site.

Several locally-developed and nationally-validated measures of English proficiency were administered to the students. Additionally, both parents and students were administered a content test to provide evidence of cultural knowledge gained as a result of the VOBC information exchanged between parent and student. The study showed positively that the VOBC home lessons reinforced ESL concepts and language skills taught to students during regular ESL classroom instruction. Significant gains were also recorded in the English language and survival skills of the parents; and, as a result of their collaboration on the VOBC home lessons, parents and students alike learned a great deal about life in America and about the American school system.

In many LEP/NEP households, parents worked two or three jobs and were often not available to work with their children on the VOBC home lessons. Likewise, many students were unaccompanied minors and/or heads of household, and did not have the luxury of parental involvement. Such cases highlighted another very important finding: in households where parents were not available to work with their children, interaction with guardians and siblings over the VOBC home lessons often provided the same positive reinforcement as when parents participated, possible evidence that home activities could be even more productive if the whole family were to be involved in their completion (Simich, 1986).

How Can School Districts Initiate An LEP/NEP Parent Involvement Program?

To develop a parent-as-tutor, collaborator or co-learner program, the collaboration of all school personnel is essential. Regular classroom teachers, ESL teachers, counselors, and administrators should receive training in how to develop better home and school collaboration with LEP/NEP parents and how to involve them in the education of their children. An essential component of the parent involvement effort is the bilingual community liaison, a highly respected member of the parents' language community who is knowledgeable about the American school system.

Information on the VOBC, Teacher's Guide to the VOBC, a training videotape to supplement the VOBC and other materials developed by the Trinity-Arlington Project may be obtained by writing the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 11501 Georgia Avenue, Wheaton, MD 20907, (301)933-9448 or (800)647-0123.

References

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Rich, D., J. Van Dien and B. Mallox. (1979). Families as educators of their own children. In R. Brandt (ed.). *Partners: parents and schools*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

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RESOURCES

APPENDIX B: RESOURCES

Resource Organizations

Atlanta Council of International Organizations
Post Office Box 56076
Atlanta, GA 30343

Services:
This non-profit community service organization seeks to foster better communications among the growing number of internationally oriented groups in the Atlanta area. It annually published The Atlanta Multicultural Directory, a very helpful resources for those working with international students.

University of Oklahoma Bilingual Education Multifunctional Resource Center, SA4 (BEMRC)
555 Constitution Avenue, Room 208
Norman, OK 73037-0005
800-522-0772, Extension 1731
405-325-1731

Services:
Provides training and technical assistance for education personnel and parents of learners of English; maintains an in-house library of resources and information related to bilingual education and ESOL.

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE)
1118 22 Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037
800-321-NCBE
202-467-0876

Services:
Maintains clearinghouse of information and resources through linkages with other information centers, computerized information (databases and resource collection), publications related to all aspects and issues of bilingual education.

National Clearinghouse on Literacy Education (NCLE)
The Center for Applied Linguistics
National Clearinghouse on Literacy Education
1118 22nd Street, NW
Washington, DC 20037 202-429-9292

Services:
Provides information, materials and technical assistance on literacy education for LE adults and out-of-school youth.

Evaluation Assistance Center - East (EAC)
The George Washington University 1730 North Lynn Street, #401
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 528-3588 Fax: 703-528-5973

Services:
Provides technical assistance in evaluation and student assessment to teachers, administrators, and evaluators working with students in grades pre-K - 12 whose first language is not English.

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300
Alexandria, Virginia 22314-2751
Tel: 703-836-0774 Fax: 703 836-7864

Services:
TESOL's mission is to strengthen the effective teaching and learning of English around the world while respecting individuals' language rights. TESOL promotes scholarship, disseminates information, and strengthens instruction and research.

Georgia Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (GTESOL)
Membership Committee
c/o Georgia Tech Language Institute
Education Extension Service
Georgia Institute of Technology
Atlanta, Ga 30332

Services:
A state affiliate of TESOL, GTESOL provides networking, conferences, professional development seminars, and two publications.

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE)
Union Center Plaza
810 First Street, N. E., Third Floor
Washington, DC 20002-4250
Tel: 202-898-1829 Fax: 202-289-8173

Services:
NABE is a tax-exempt, non-profit professional association founded in 1975 to address the educational needs of language minority Americans.

Suggested Materials for ESOL Teachers and Students

Many of the suggested materials on this list are available in classrooms, school libraries or around the house; others are easily available from commercial publishers.

Teacher resource books

Cloud, N. (1989). *Multisystem: Systematic Instructional Planning for Exceptional Bilingual Students*. New York: Teachers college, Columbia University. pp. 31, 36.

Cummins, J. (1989). *Empowering Minority Students*. Sacramento, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education, p. 45.

Enright, D. S. & McCloskey, M. L. (1988). *Integrating English: Developing English Language and Literacy in the Multilingual Classroom*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, p. 27.

Heald-Taylor, G. (1989). *Whole Language Strategies for ESL Students*. San Diego: Dormac.

Law, B. & Eckes, M. (1990). *The More Than Just Surviving Handbook: ESL for Every Classroom Teacher*. Winnipeg, Canada: Pegasus.

McCloskey, M. L. (1990). *Integrated Language Teaching Strategies*. Atlanta, GA: Educo Press.

For sources for specific strategies, see references listed in part 4.

Picture sources

Picture dictionaries and cards, magazines, catalogues.

Library books and reference books with pictures

Magazines with good pictures. Have very beginning students make their own picture dictionaries by cutting out pictures from old magazines.

Pictures, charts and graphs in class texts: maps, charts, photos, diagrams, etc.

Audio visual materials

Tape recorder and talking books; language masters and cards; film strips with records and tapes; films and videos; music (Music is excellent for beginners: use pop songs, folk songs, or whatever will help you teach your topics).

Oral Language Teaching activities

Use chants, rhymes, songs, jump rope rhymes, TPR scripts, etc.

Literature

Select quality literature to expose students to excellent English. Begin with wordless books, many of which are appropriate for older students, predictable books, big books. Move on to age-appropriate poetry, novels and selections.

Get a good poetry anthology or two for your classroom.

Big Books are excellent for Shared Reading. Many publishers sell them. For older students, try putting poems and songs in big type on transparencies.

For older students, replace too-difficult content-area textbooks with content area materials on a lower level. Many publishers are beginning to advertise content area series for language learners.

Realia

Bring in real things to help the students make the connections and learn the language. Collect food packages and wrappers to help students begin reading with easy-to-recognize environmental print.

Use magnet board, flannel board, pocket chart, overhead projector for a variety of activities.

Borrow a doll house to teach around the house vocabulary. Other borrowed toys (e.g. Fisher-Price garage, etc.) can make teaching basic terms and structures interesting and easy.

Use hands-on math, science, and social studies activities whenever you can. In math, have students to use real objects to demonstrate mathematical concepts and processes. In science, collect equipment and do experiments, don't just read about them. In social studies use maps whenever you can, and bring in props and have students act out the signing of the Magna Carta or Alfred Dreyfus's trials, or whatever you are learning about.

Games

Bring in games that teach language, changing the rules if necessary to increase oral language-learning during the games. Use pairs of reproduced pictures from various sources for playing cards. Play cooperative games that incorporate language. Make your own games to reinforce vocabulary and classroom concepts and to encourage interaction among students.

Addison-Wesley Publishing
Jacob Way
Reading, MA 01867
800-447-2226

Alemany Press
2501 Industrial Parkway West
Hayward, CA 94545
800-227-2375

Attanasio and Associates
4595 Dudley Lane
Atlanta, GA 30327
404-843-2644

Ballard and Tighe
480 Atlas Street
Brea, CA 92621
800-321-4332

Bilingual Education Services, Inc.
2514 S. Grand Ave.
Los Angeles, CA 90007
213-749-6213
800-448-6032
FAX 213-749-1820

Children's Book Press
1461 Ninth Avenue
San Francisco, CA 94112

Children's Press
5440 North Cumberland Ave.
Chicago, IL 60656-1469
800-621-1115

Delta Systems, Inc.
570 Rock Road Drive
Dundee, IL 60118-9922
800-323-8270

DLM
One DLM
McAllen, TX 75002
800-527-5030

Dormac, Inc.
P.O. Box 270459
San Diego, CA 92128-0983
800-547-8032

El Correo de Cuentos
P.O. Box 6652
Pico Rivera, CA 90661-6652
FAX 310-517-1892

Greenshower Corp.
10937 Klingerman Street
S. El Monte, CA 91733
818-575-1000

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
International Division
Orlando, FL 32887
407-352-3395Heinle & Heinle
20 Park Plaza
Boston, MA 02116
800-237-0053

Hispanic Books Distributors, Inc.
1665 West Grant Rd.
Tucson, AZ 85745
602-882-9484
800-634-2124

Global Village
2210 Wilshire Blvd., Box 262
Santa Monica, CA 90403
800-955-GLOBAL
213-459-5188
FAX 800-879-0626

Houghton Mifflin
777 California Avenue
Palo Alto, CA 94304
415-857-0211

JACP, Incorporated
Asian American Books
234 Main Street/P.O. Box 1587
San Mateo, CA 94401-1587
800-874-2242
415-343-9408

Janus Book Publishers, Inc.
2501 Industrial Parkway, West
Department JA
Hayward, CA 94545
800-227-2375

Laredo Publishing Co., Inc.
22930 Lockness Ave.
Torrance, CA 90501
310-517-1890

Laubach Literacy
Box 131
Syracuse, NY 13210
800-448-8878

Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc.
Widewaters One Office Building
5795 Widewaters Parkway
Syracuse, NY 13214
315-445-8000

Little, Brown and Company
34 Beacon Street
Boston, MA 02106
617-227-0730

The Magnetic Way
2495 N. Forest Road
Getzville, NY 14068
800-626-5052

Maxwell Macmillan
866 3rd Avenue
New York, NY 10022
800-257-5755

McGraw-Hill
1200 N.W. 63rd Street
P.O. Box 25308
Oklahoma City, OK 73125
800-654-8608

Media Materials, Inc.
Department 855052
2936 Remington Avenue
Baltimore, MD 21211
800-638-1010

Miller Educational Materials
P.O. Box 2601
San Gabriel, CA 91778
213-429-1929

Moreno Education Company
7050 Belle Glade Lane
San Diego, CA 92119
619-461-0565

Multicultural Distributing Center
a division of Greenshower Corporation
800 N. Green Ave.
Covina, CA 91724
818-859-3133
FAX 818-859-3136

National Textbook Company
4255 West Touhy Avenue
Lincolnwood, IL 60646
800-323-4900

Newbury House
54 Warehouse Lane
Rowlen, MA 01969
800-343-1240

Oxford University Press
200 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10016
800-542-2442

Prentice-Hall Inc.
Educational Book Division
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632Spectrum Books
P.O. Box 3463
Glendale, AZ 91221
818-545-3934
800-223-1360

Regents Publishing Company, Inc.
Two Park Avenue
New York, NY 10016
800-822-8020

Santillana Publishing Co., Inc.
901 Walnut Street
Compton, CA 90220-5109
800-526-0107

Scholastic Inc.
2931 E. McCarthy Street
P.O. Box 3710
Jefferson City, MO 65102-9957
800-325-6149

Scott, Foresman and Company
1900 East Lake Avenue
Glenview, IL 60025
800-554-4411

Spectrum Books
P.O. Box 3463
Glendale, AZ 91221
818-545-3934

Steck-Vaughn
2500 South 38 Fourth Street, #50
Federal Way, WA 98003
800-531-5015

University of Pittsburgh Press
127 North Bellefield Avenue
Pittsburgh, PA 15260
412-624-4110

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FORUM

Federal Education Programs Serving LEP Students

Based on a report prepared by Ruby Ann Esquibel for the Congressional Research Service

Overview

Various federal education programs provide educational and/or related services to students, including limited English proficient (LEP) students. These programs vary with respect to the level and type of education being provided, and the specificity of the student populations being served. The major sources of federal funding for the education of LEP students at the primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels are contained in the following legislation:

- the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA);
- the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act (VEA);
- the Adult Education Act (AEA); and
- the Higher Education Act (HEA).

Programs funded under Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and the Bilingual Vocational Training Program authorized under the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act are designed specifically for LEP students and support the use of a bilingual instructional approach.

Other programs are designed to serve the more broadly defined populations of low-income, educationally disadvantaged, and minority students. These populations frequently include large numbers of LEP students; therefore, many such programs serve a significant number of LEP students as part of their overall mission.

Title VII Bilingual Education Programs

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA); Harry Logel; 202-732-5700

Title VII of the ESEA — the Bilingual Education Act — supports elementary and secondary education programs for LEP students through bilingual program grants (Part A), support service grants (Part B), and training grants (Part C). Parts B and C do not focus on LEP students directly and, therefore, are not discussed here.

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Federal programs, *from page 1*

Six types of bilingual education programs are authorized under Title VII, Part A: transitional bilingual education (TBE) programs that provide native language instruction to help students achieve competence in English and meet grade promotion and graduation requirements; developmental bilingual education (DBE) programs that teach English to and develop the language skills of LEP students while also developing bilingual skills in their English speaking peers; special alternative instruction programs (SAIPs) designed to help LEP students learn through English; Academic Excellence Programs selected to disseminate information on outstanding instructional programs; family English literacy programs; and special populations programs for bilingual preschool, special education, and gifted and talented students.

Emergency Immigrant Education Act Programs

OBEMLA: Harpreet Sandhu; 202/732-5700

Title IV, Part D, of the ESEA—the Emergency Immigrant Education Act—authorizes financial assistance to state education agencies (SEAs) and local education agencies (LEAs) for supplementary educational services for immigrant children enrolled in elementary and secondary schools in school districts that are heavily affected by newly arrived immigrant students. Participation in the program is limited to districts with at least 500 such students or where immigrant children represent three percent of the total enrollment. Funds are directed through SEAs that award subgrants to LEAs based on the number of immigrant children enrolled. Funds are used to give supplemental support such as the provision of instructional materials.

Chapter 1 Compensatory Education Programs for the Disadvantaged

Office of Compensatory Education: Mary Jean LeTendre; 202/401-1682

Title I, Chapter 1, of the ESEA, provides funds to LEAs and SEAs to help meet the educational needs of economically and/or educationally disadvantaged children. Chapter 1 funds may be used only to supplement educational and related services beyond those provided as part of the "regular" education program, such as basic skills and remedial reading instruction. Chapter 1 includes two types of programs: the basic LEA grant program, which comprises the largest Chapter 1 funding program; and SEA grant programs for handicapped, migrant, and neglected or delinquent children.

Chapter 1 Migrant Education Programs

Office of Migrant Education: Francis V. Corrigan, Ramon Ruiz; 202/401-0740

Four federal programs specifically address the education needs of migrants. The Chapter 1 Migrant Education Program provides funding to SEAs for compensatory education services for children of migrant agricultural workers and fishermen. These services include supplemental instructional assistance in reading, mathematics, language arts, vocational education, and English for LEP students. The program also supports intra- and inter-state coordination activities and the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS), which tracks migrant enrollment and provides data used to determine funding allocations.

The High School Equivalency Program (HEP) provides grants to institutions of higher education or other public and private nonprofit organizations to assist migrant and seasonal farmworkers beyond the age of compulsory school attendance to complete the coursework necessary to receive a high school diploma or its equivalent. The HEP provides funding for outreach, teaching, counseling, and placement services.

The College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP) helps migrant farmworkers and their dependents over the age of seventeen who are enrolled as first-year undergraduate students to transition from secondary to post-secondary education and complete their first year of college. Participants receive tuition scholarships as well as stipends for personal expenses.

The Migrant Education Even Start (MEES) program is funded as part of the Title I, Chapter 1, Even Start appropriation. MEES is designed to improve the education opportunities of migrant children and adults by integrating early childhood education and adult education for parents in a unified program.

Indian Education Programs

Office of Indian Education: John Tippeconnic; 202/401-1887

Title V, Subparts One and Two, of the Hawkins-Stafford Elementary and Secondary School Improvement Amendments of 1988—the Indian Education Act—provides funds for a range of activities including basic skills instruction, remedial reading and math programs, native language instruction including bilingual edu-

Federal programs, *from previous page*

cation, and instruction in tribal heritage and traditions.

Two major programs authorized under the Elementary and Secondary School Improvements Amendment are the discretionary grant program and the LEA formula grant program. In the LEA program, federal funds are distributed to LEAs through SEAs on a formula basis and are used to provide financial assistance for elementary and secondary programs that meet the special academic needs of Indian children. The discretionary grant program awards federal funding to institutions of higher education (IHEs), Indian tribes and organizations, SEAs, and LEAs for a wide range of activities including inservice teacher training programs and bilingual education programs in preschool through post-secondary education.

Other programs funded through the Indian Education Act include Evaluation and Technical Assistance Centers, Gifted and Talented Programs, Pilot and Demonstration Projects, and Educational Personnel Development Programs.

Bilingual Vocational Training Programs

Office of Bilingual Vocational and Technical Education: Ron Castaldi (Title III), 202/732-2381; Laura Karl (Title IV), 202/732-2365

Title IV, Part E, of the VEA establishes provisions for bilingual vocational training. Program funds are used to train LEP individuals for employment concurrently with English language instruction, to train instructors in bilingual vocational education, to develop materials and instructional techniques for bilingual vocational training, and to conduct research in bilingual vocational education. The Act specifies that 75 percent of the appropriation be used for LEP job training, 15 percent for teacher training, and 10 percent for research and the development of instructional materials.

Under Title II of the VEA, the U.S. Department of Education operates a state grant program aimed at providing access to quality vocational education for special populations such as disabled, disadvantaged, and LEP students and for improving vocational education for all participants.

Adult Education Programs

Division of Adult Education and Literacy: Joan Seamon; 202/732-2270

The AEA is the major source of federal funds to assist educationally disadvantaged adults. Funds are used to improve educational opportunities for those adults who lack the basic skills needed to function effectively as citizens, parents, and workers. Services offered include adult basic education (ABE), adult secondary education (ASE), and ESL instruction. ESL is the fastest growing component, currently enrolling one in three AEA program participants.

AEA state grants are, in turn, allocated to local adult education programs operated by LEAs, correctional education agencies, community-based organizations, IHEs, nonprofit agencies, and other institutions serving educationally disadvantaged adults. AEA also funds the State Literacy Resource Centers Program.

The AEA also authorizes demonstration programs such as the National Workplace Literacy Partnerships Program and the English Literacy Grants Program, as well as the National Clearinghouse on Literacy Education.

The AEA Adult Education National Program supports research, development, evaluation, and related services through grants and contracts. Most recently, in 1992, the National Institute for Literacy was established with funding through this program.

Special Programs for Students from Disadvantaged Backgrounds

Office of Compensatory Education: Mary Jean LeTendre; 202/401-1682

Title IV, Part A, Subpart 4, of the HEA authorizes Special Programs for Students from Disadvantaged Backgrounds. Commonly known as the TRIO programs, these consist of Talent Search, Upward Bound, Student Support Services, Educational Opportunity Centers, Staff Training Activities, and the Ronald E. McNair Post-Baccalaureate Achievement programs. These discretionary programs are designed to identify disadvantaged secondary school students with potential for success in post-secondary education, assist them in completing high school, and assist them in entering and completing a post-secondary education program. ■

Information contained herein is current and is based on "Federal education programs serving limited English proficient students," a report for Congress prepared by Congressional Research Service, 1989.

Overview of NCBE

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education was established in 1977 to provide practitioners with information on the education of limited English proficient (LEP) students. NCBE collects, analyzes, and disseminates information about materials, programs, research, legislation, and other areas that can help educators, parents, legislators, and others meet the needs of LEP, language minority students.

The NCBE Computerized Information System (CIS) features a Bibliographic Database, which contains abstracts for over 1,000 publications relating to the education of language minority students. In many cases, NCBE has approval to disseminate copies of these documents; when it does not, appropriate contact and ordering information is provided. The CIS also includes the Publishers and the Resources databases, the Newsline Electronic Bulletin Board, and an electronic mail (e-mail) service.

Access to NCBE's resources is available to all individuals who work with LEP language minority students through two toll-free numbers—one to speak directly with clearinghouse staff and one for on-line computer access. A User ID# and CIS user manual are required for on-line access; these can be obtained by using the NCBE FAX Order Form on the back page of this issue.

Under the new contract, NCBE will be responsible for publishing the proceedings from OBEMLA's annual national research symposium on limited English proficient students' issues. NCBE's other publications include *Forum* and two monograph series—Program Information Guides and Focus Occasional Papers. These, in combination with brochures, fact sheets, and topical bibliographies, are an important part of NCBE's proactive outreach efforts.

NCBE is operated by nine full-time staff members including the director, associate director, assistant director, three information specialists, an outreach coordinator, an acquisitions specialist, and an editor. The toll-free number is 800/321-NCBE. Regular hours of operation are Monday-Friday, 9 A.M. to 6 P.M. EST.

Multifunctional Resource Centers

The Bilingual Education Act provides for the operation of at least sixteen Multifunctional Resource Centers to perform two primary tasks. The first of these is to provide technical assistance and training services to educators participating in or preparing to participate in instructional programs that serve LEP populations. Each MRC provides its technical services to educators, schools, districts, and state education agencies (SEAs) within a defined geographic area.

The second task for each MRC is to collect information on a specific information gathering area for dissemination to other MRCs and through NCBE. The following directory includes information on regional service and information gathering areas for each of the sixteen MRCs. ■

The following directory of the sixteen Multifunctional Resource Centers funded by OBEMLA is categorized according to each MRC's regional service area. The directory also identifies each MRC's specific information gathering area (IGA) and includes contact and address information.

MRC training schedules are regularly updated in NCBE's Electronic Bulletin Board—NCBE Newsline.

Service Area 1

Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont

MRC Director: Adelmo Becker
Brown University
164 Wayland Avenue
Providence, Rhode Island 02906
Tel.: 401/274-9548
Fax: 401/421-7650
IGA: Bilingual program administration

Service Area 2

New York

MRC Director: Jose Vazquez
Hunter College of CUNY
Bilingual Programs
695 Park Avenue, Room W924
New York, New York 10021
Tel.: 212/772-4764
Fax: 212/650-3815
IGA: Bilingual special education

Service Area 3

Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia

MRC Director: Tran Huong Mai
COMSIS Corporation
8737 Colesville Road, Suite 900
Silver Spring, Maryland 20910
Tel.: 301/588-0800
800/228-6723
Fax: 301/588-5922
IGA: Developmental programs in bilingual education

Service Area 4

Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee

MRC Director: Hai Tran
University of Oklahoma
College of Continuing Education
555 Constitution Street, Suite 208
Norman, Oklahoma 73037-0005
Tel.: 405/325-1731
800/522-0772, ext. 173
Fax: 405/325-1824
IGA: Bilingual vocational and career education programs

Service Area 5

Florida, Puerto Rico, Virgin Islands

MRC Director: Ann Willig
Florida Atlantic University
College of Education
1515 W. Commercial Boulevard, Suite 303
Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33309
Tel.: 305/351-4110
800/328-6721
Fax: 305/351-4111
IGA: New immigrant/refugee programs

Service Area 6

Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wisconsin

MRC Director: Minerva Coyne
Wisconsin Center for Education Research
University of Wisconsin, Madison
1025 West Johnson Street
Madison, Wisconsin 53706
Tel.: 608/263-4220
Fax: 608/263-6448
IGA: Educational technology in bilingual programs

Service Area 7

Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska

MRC Director: Judith A. Kwiat
InterAmerica Research Associates
2360 E. Devon Avenue, Suite 3011
Des Plaines, Illinois 60018
Tel.: 708/296-6070
Fax: 708/296-7892
IGA: Counseling for LEP students

Service Area 8

Northern Texas

MRC Director: Betty Mace-Matluck
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
211 East Seventh Street
Austin, Texas 78701
Tel.: 512/476-6861
Fax: 512/476-2286
IGA: English literacy for LEP students

Service Area 9

Southern Texas

MRC Director: Abelardo Villarreal
Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA)
5835 Callaghan, Suite 350
San Antonio, Texas 78228-1190
Tel.: 210/684-8180
Fax: 210/684-5389
IGA: Programs and strategies to enhance student retention

Service Area 10

Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah

MRC Director: Rudy Chavez
Arizona State University
College of Education
Tempe, Arizona 85287-0208
Tel.: 602/965-5688
Fax: 602/965-8887
IGA: Parent education and involvement

Service Area 11

Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington, Wyoming

MRC Director: Esther Puentes
Interface Network, Inc.
4800 S.W. Griffith Drive, Suite 202
Beaverton, Oregon 97005
Tel.: 503/644-5741
Fax: 503/626-2805
IGA: Early childhood programs for LEP students

Service Area 12

Northern California

MRC Director: Tamara Lucas
ARC Associates, Inc.
310 Eighth Street, Suite 220
Oakland, California 94607
Tel.: 510/834-9455
Fax: 510/763-1490
IGA: Mathematics and science programs in bilingual education

Service Area 13

Los Angeles, California

MRC Director: Rocio Flores Moss
San Diego State University Foundation
6505 Alvarado Road, Suite 106
San Diego, California 92120
Tel.: 619/594-5193
714/652-6382 (Field Office)
Fax: 619/594-2378
IGA: Bilingual education of gifted and talented LEP students

Service Area 14

Southern California

MRC Director: Portia Lee
California State Polytechnic University, Pomona
3801 West Temple Avenue
Pomona, California 91768
Tel.: 714/869-3787
Fax: 714/397-5850
IGA: English as a second language and other alternative programs

Service Area 15

American Samoa, CNMI, Guam, Hawaii, Palau

MRC Director: Wanda Moore
ARC Associates, Inc.
1314 South King Street, Suite 1456
Honolulu, Hawaii 96814
Tel.: 808/536-4494
Fax: 808/531-7802
IGA: Methods for teaching Pacific Island LEP students

Service Area 16

Alaska

MRC Director: Richard Littlebear
Interface Network, Inc.
4155 Tudor Centre Drive, Suite 105
Anchorage, Alaska 99508
Tel.: 907/563-7787
Fax: 907/563-8181
IGA: Bilingual adult and intergenerational education

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A GLOSSARY OF SECOND LANGUAGE EDUCATION TERMS

1. L1 - a person's first language, also called the native language or home language.

2. L2 - a person's second language, not the language learned from birth. L2 is sometimes used to refer to a person's third or fourth language, indicating simply that it is not the person's native language.

3. dominant language - a person's "stronger language", which may be influenced by the social environment and is relative to the criteria used to compare proficiency information.

4. basic interpersonal communications skills (BICS) - the informal language used for conversation, sometimes dubbed "playground language". BICS is heavily dependent on context-conversational responses, gestures, physical interactions, visual cues.

5. cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) - language grasp believed to be necessary for students to succeed in context reduced and cognitively demanding academic areas such as reading, writing, science, math, social studies, etc.

6. limited English proficient (LEP) - a characteristic of persons whose first language is not English and whose English language skills are not equal to those of their peer group.

7. affective filter - negative influences--including anxiety, lack of self-confidence, inadequate motivation--which can hinder the language acquisition process by keeping understandable messages from being understood.

8. comprehensible input - understandable messages that are critical for language acquisition.

9. English as a second language (ESL) - the teaching of English to speakers of other languages through a wide variety of methods.

10. grammar-based ESL - methods which emphasize memorization of vocabulary and drills in grammatical structures.

11. communication based ESL - methods founded on the theory that language proficiency is acquired through exposure to comprehensible messages - that humans are "wired" for language and naturally internalize language structures that make sense; emphasize the negotiation of meaning.

12. natural approach - a communication based ESL methodology of teaching English through extensive use of physical and visual clues, minimal correction of grammatical errors, and an emphasis on communicating messages relevant to students' needs and interests.

13. total physical response - a communication based ESL method that stresses simplified speech and visual and physical clues. It is a kinesthetic sensory system that uses high student involvement and interest in a low-anxiety environment.

14. teaching reading as conversation (TRAC) - employs a language acquisition/reading acquisition model for presenting and learning reading in a communicative context.

15. immersion - programs in which students are taught a second language through content area instruction in that language. These programs generally emphasize contextual clues and adjust grammar and vocabulary to students' proficiency level.

16. submersion - a "sink or swim" situation in which limited English proficient students receive no special language assistance. According to the 1974 Supreme Court Law V. Nichols case, submersion violates federal civil rights law.

17. structured immersion - programs using English only, in a simplified form, as the medium of instruction for certain subjects or for certain periods of the day.

18. sheltered English - content area lessons tailored to limited English proficient students' level of English proficiency.

19. concurrent translation - a practice whereby a teacher shifts between two languages to communicate ideas.

20. transitional/ bilingual education - programs in which students receive ESL instruction plus content area instruction in their native language (to help them keep up in school subjects while they learn English). The goal is to mainstream students into English classrooms as soon as possible.

21. maintenance (development) bilingual education - programs designed to preserve and develop students' first language while they acquire a second language.

22. additive bilingualism - an enrichment philosophy/program in which students acquire the socially and economically valuable skill of proficiency in a second language without undermining their first (native) language competence or identification with their culture group.

23. subtractive bilingualism - a philosophy/program which attempts to replace students' first (native) language with another language (i.e. English).

24. enrichment model - a model with the underlying premise that knowing two languages is enriching, a bonus, and beneficial to the learner. Enrichment programs build upon the students' existing language skills.

25. compensatory model - a model with the underlying premise that limited English proficiency is a deficit that needs to be fixed or compensated for. Compensatory programs attempt to replace first language skills with the second language.

26. two-way bilingual education - an integrated model in which speakers of two different languages are taught together to learn each other's language and to develop academic language proficiency on both languages.

This glossary was drawn from:

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ADDITIONAL

READINGS

ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Different Types of ESL Programs

Prepared by Denise McKeon

December 1987

By the year 2000, it is anticipated that the number of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students aged 5–14 in the United States will reach approximately 3.4 million (Oxford, Pol, Lopez, Stupp, Gendell, & Peng, 1981). These are students who lack the necessary English skills for immediate success in an all-English curriculum. To date, nearly one teacher in four has had LEP students in class (O'Malley &Waggoner, 1984).

In an effort to meet the needs of these students, school districts have instituted a variety of programs that attempt to provide instruction in English as a second language (ESL). The organization of the programs appears to be as different as the students themselves. However, regardless of program design, the minimal goal of each program should be to provide each student with the English skills necessary to function successfully in an academic setting.

What Factors Influence the Design of ESL Programs?

Several variables influence the kind of program that will be designed to operate in any given district: (1) student population to be served, (2) individual student characteristics, and (3) district resources.

•*District Demographics.* Districts find themselves with many varieties of LEP students. Some districts have large, relatively stable populations of LEP students from a single language or cultural background. Others have large groups of LEP students representing several language backgrounds. Other districts may experience a sudden increase in the number of LEP students from a given group: the number of Vietnamese, Hmong, Cubans, and Haitians in many districts has increased significantly in direct response to social and political changes in students' countries of origin. Some districts have very small numbers of LEP students from many different language groups. Some report more than 100 language groups with two or three LEP students from each, scattered across grade levels and across schools. Characteristics of these populations—including the numbers and kinds of students per language group, the size of language groups and the mobility of their members, as well as geographic and grade distribution of students—influence the type of ESL instructional program design that a district will develop to serve its students.

•*Individual Student Characteristics.* Characteristics of individual students can influence the type of ESL instruction to be provided. Some students enter U.S. schools with strong academic preparation in their native language. They have attended school in their own country, have learned to read and write well in their first language and are at comparable (or better) levels in such content areas as mathematics. Other students may not have had such extensive academic preparation. Due to social, economic, or cultural factors, their schooling may have been interrupted or never begun (Ovando & Collier, 1985). Some students at every age level come with little or no exposure to reading and writing, unable in some instances to do even basic mathematical computations. The design of an instructional program to serve students such as these becomes an increasingly complex task.

•*District Resources.* Availability of resources varies from district to district. Some have trained ESL personnel on site, while others are scrambling to find someone who could work with a few students on a volunteer basis. Some districts can draw upon a large stable community group for bilingual personnel to staff immersion or bilingual education programs.

Some districts are experiencing declining enrollments, freeing up classroom space to allow for such designs as magnet schools or resource centers. Other districts are bursting at the seams, making it seem an impossibility just to find classroom space to house an ESL program. Thus, the capability of individual districts to provide human and material resources will greatly influence the type of ESL program organization that will be developed.

How Are Different ESL Programs Classified?

ESL program designs can be broadly categorized as either stand-alone ESL or ESL-plus. In general, stand-alone ESL programs group LEP students together and instruct them in a manner similar to that used in foreign language classes. The focus of the program is primarily a linguistic one. Stand-alone ESL programs operate solely for LEP students who are taken out of their regular classroom environment and placed in a setting where their need for instruction in and about English can be addressed in a special way (Ohio State Dept. of Education, 1987). The stand-alone ESL program usually operates for short portions of each school day, although in some less-than-ideal circumstances, it may operate less, with students receiving special instruction only two or three times a week.

ESL-plus programs may include a component of special instruction in and about English (like the stand-alone programs) but generally go beyond a linguistic scope to include a focus on content area instruction as well. Content area instruction may be given in the student's native language or in English. ESL-plus programs generally serve students for a longer portion of the instructional day than stand-alone programs, and in some instances represent the student's entire instructional program.

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What Are Some Examples of Stand–Alone ESL Program Design?

•**Pull–out**. Generally used in an elementary setting. The student is pulled out of the regular classroom for special instruction in ESL. This pull–out instruction may be provided by teachers who are assigned to just one building (where the number of students needing instruction is large enough), or it may be provided by one teacher who travels to several schools to serve small numbers of children scattered throughout the district (Chamot & Stewner–Manzanares, 1985). Students from different first-language backgrounds may be grouped for instruction. The teacher may or may not be trained in ESL (O'Malley & Waggoner, 1984) and is generally not bilingual.

•**Class period**. Generally used in a middle or secondary school setting. The student receives ESL instruction during a regular class period. Students generally receive credit for this course, just like any other course taken in a departmentalized setting. Students may be grouped according to their level of English proficiency. The teacher is generally not bilingual (Ohio State Dept. of Education, 1987).

•**Resource Center**. A variation of the pull–out design, the resource center brings students together from several classes or several schools. The resource center generally is an "enriched" version of the pull-out design with materials and staff being concentrated in one location to provide a wider variety of language instruction and experiences. Students may be pulled out of their regular classrooms for one or more periods of ESL instruction. The resource center is generally staffed with at least one full–time ESL teacher, who may or may not be bilingual (Ohio State Dept. of Education, 1987).

What Are Some Examples of English–Plus Program Design?

•**Bilingual Education Programs**. May be used either at the elementary or secondary level (Seelye & Navarro, 1977). Bilingual programs may be classified as "early transition" or "late transition" programs, depending on the criteria used to determine whether students can succeed in an all–English curriculum. In early exit programs, students are mainstreamed primarily on the basis of oral English proficiency. In "late transition" students are mainstreamed on the basis of English proficiency—including reading and writing—sufficient for sustaining academic achievement in an all–English classroom.

In both early and late transition programs, students receive instruction that develops their native language skills, instruction in ESL, and content area instruction in varying degrees in English or the first language. Students are grouped according to first language, and teachers are bilingual (Hernandez–Chavez, 1984).

•**Structured Immersion Programs**. May be used either in elementary or secondary schools. Immersion programs include, in varying degrees, development of the student's first language skills and content area instruction in English. No structured ESL component is included. While students may address the teacher in either their first language or English, teachers (who are bilingual) respond generally in English. Content area instruction is based on the notion of "comprehensible input," in which the teacher uses only the vocabulary and structures that can be understood by the students (Ramirez, 1986).

•**Sheltered English or Content–Based Programs.** Used primarily to date with secondary school students. These "alternative" content classes allow LEP speakers from different backgrounds with some English proficiency to be grouped into specific content classes especially designed to provide them with "comprehensible input" (see previous section on Immersion Programs). A trained ESL teacher who is not necessarily bilingual provides instruction. Sheltered English or content–based programs may parallel virtually all mainstream academic curricular offerings or may consist of only one or two subjects (Chamot & Stewner–Manzanares, 1985).

•**High Intensity Language Training (HILT) Programs.** Used primarily at the secondary level. In a HILT design, LEP students of various language backgrounds are grouped for a significant portion of the school day. Students receive intensive training in ESL, usually for 3 hours a day in the first year of instruction, less in succeeding years (Chamot & Stewner–Manzanares, 1985). Placement of students into regular classrooms is accomplished on a subject–by–subject basis and usually includes initial mainstreaming into linguistically undemanding classes such as music, physical education, and art. Some HILT models may incorporate content–based or sheltered English classes as an additional feature of program design. Teachers are trained in ESL and are not necessarily bilingual.

Is There Any One Best Program Design to Use with LEP Students?

The design of any ESL program must take so many factors into account that it becomes a fairly complex task to decide which program organization would be best in any given set of circumstances. What can be said, however, is that the best program organization is one which:

–is tailored to meet the linguistic, academic, and affective needs of students;

–provides LEP students with the instruction necessary to allow them to progress through school at a rate commensurate with their native–English speaking peers; and

–makes the best use of district and community resources.

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS

ERIC Digest

Sheltered English Instruction

Prepared by David Freeman and Yvonne Freeman *October 1988*

The number of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students in U.S. schools has increased dramatically in recent years. Waggoner (1984) estimates that by the year 2000, 3.4 million students in this country will speak a language other than English as their mother tongue. School districts are faced with the task of preparing these LEP students to keep up academically with their native-English-speaking peers. One way to help LEP students succeed academically is to recognize the need to develop their cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)—the kind of proficiency required to make sense of academic language in context-reduced situations (Cummins, 1979, 1981). CALP can take up to seven years to acquire; even "advantaged" non-English-speakers require 5-8 years to score as well as native speakers on standardized tests (Collier, 1987). Accordingly, if teachers of English as a second language (ESL) focus solely on developing students' linguistic competence, the students may fall too far behind in academic subjects to ever catch up.

One type of instruction that offers promise in helping LEP students develop academic competence while also developing English proficiency is sheltered English.

What Is Sheltered English?

Sheltered English is an instructional approach used to make academic instruction in English understandable to LEP students. Students in these classes are "sheltered" in that they do not compete academically with native English speakers since the class includes only LEP students. In the regular classroom, English fluency is assumed. In contrast, in the sheltered English classroom, teachers use physical activities, visual aids, and the environment to teach important new words for concept development in mathematics, science, history, home economics, and other subjects (National Clearinghouse on Bilingual Education, 1987).

The methods that teachers employ in sheltered classes include the following:

- Extralinguistic cues such as visuals, props, and body language (Parker, 1985);
- Linguistic modifications such as repetition and pauses during speech (Parker, 1985);
- Interactive lectures with frequent comprehension checks;
- Cooperative learning strategies (Kagan 1985);
- Focus on central concepts rather than on details by using a thematic approach;
- Development of reading strategies such as mapping and writing to develop thinking (Langer & Applebee, 1985).

Are There Different Types of Sheltered English Programs?

Sheltered English programs may be either bilingual or monolingual, but English instruction is the key element in both. One model described by Weinhouse (1986) defines sheltered English as "a program of instruction for language minority students consisting of three components: sheltered English instruction, primary language instruction, and mainstream English instruction" (p.4).

Krashen (1985) presents a detailed model for this type of sheltered English illustrated below.

Level	Mainstream	Sheltered	First Language
Beginning	Art, Music, PE	ESL	All Core Subjects
Intermediate	Art, Music, PE	ESL, Math, Science	Language Arts, Social Studies
Advanced	Art, Music, PE, Science, Math	Language Arts, Social Studies	Enrichment Program
Mainstream	All Subjects		Enrichment Program

In this model, students are mainstreamed initially in music, art, and physical education (PE)—the subjects least linguistically demanding. Students study English in a sheltered class and all core subjects in their first language. At the intermediate stage, math and science as well as English are taught in sheltered classes, while social studies and language arts are taught in the student's first language. At the advanced level, language arts and social studies are sheltered, and the student is mainstreamed for all other classes.

The goal of the program is to mainstream the student gradually, but since some instruction occurs in the primary language, bilingualism is also possible. However, in some school situations, especially at the

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secondary level, the primary instruction component is infeasible (unless the instructor has the benefit of native-speaking aides to assist LEP students with individual instruction) because either a variety of native languages are spoken by the students or the number of speakers of any given language is small.

Schifini (1985) acknowledges the desirability of programs with first language instruction and asks: "How does the American history teacher who has students who speak eleven different primary languages in his or her classroom make the class understandable at all?" (p.2). Schifini proposes a sheltered English program for students with intermediate English proficiency. At the first level of this two-level program, students study ESL and take sheltered math and science classes. At the second level, sheltered classes in social studies are added as students continue with ESL instruction.

Who Are the Instructors?

Typically, sheltered English classes are taught by regular classroom teachers who receive in-service instruction on ways to make subject-area content comprehensible for LEP students. However, ESL teachers may assume part of the responsibility for the curriculum and teach a class such as an ESL/social studies (or sheltered social studies) class.

How Is Sheltered English Different from Other Approaches To Teaching LEP Students?

As Weinhouse (1986) suggests, sheltered English programs can contain key elements of three other approaches to teaching limited-English-proficient students: bilingual education, immersion, and content-based instruction.

- **Bilingual Education.** Bilingual programs have been effective in developing both English proficiency and academic competence by instruction in the primary language as well as in English. Where appropriate and feasible, sheltered English programs also include first language instruction.
- **Immersion Education.** Immersion programs teach a second language by providing sheltered instruction in content areas to students with limited language proficiency. In foreign language immersion programs, English-speaking students receive sheltered instruction in languages such as French, Spanish, or German. (In sheltered English programs, the sheltered instruction is in English.)
- **Content-based Instruction.** A number of programs, including sheltered English, have been designed with the aim of teaching English through the content areas.

Conclusion

Sheltered English instruction includes a variety of techniques to help regular classroom teachers make content-area material comprehensible for ESL students who already have some English proficiency. The programs may include a primary language instruction component. Sheltered English programs have proven successful in the development of academic competence in LEP students because such programs concentrate on the simultaneous development of content-area and ESL proficiency.

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LORRIE A. SHEPARD AND MARY LEE SMITH

Other Topics

Synthesis of Research on Grade Retention

Although grade retention is widely practiced, it does not help children to "catch up." Retained children may appear to do better in the short term, but they are at much greater risk for future failure then their equally achieving, non-retained peers.

Retaining students in grade is often used as a means to raise educatonal standards. The assumption is that by catching up on prerequisite skills, students should be less at risk for failure when they go on to the next grade. Strict enforcement of promotion standards at every grade is expected both to ensure the competence of high school graduates and lower the dropout rate because learning deficiencies would never be allowed to accumulate. Despite the popular belief that repeating a grade is an effective remedy for students who have failed to master basic skills, however, the large body of research on grade retention is almost uniformly negative.

Research Evidence

The purpose of this article is to summarize research-based conclusions regarding the effects of grade retenuon. We then address the discrepancy between research and practice and consider alternatives to retention.

How many students repeat a grade in school? Although no national statistics have been collected on grade retention, we recently (1989a) analyzed data from 13 states and the District of Columbia. Our estimate is that 5 to 7 percent of public school children (about 2 children in every classroom of 30) are retained in the U.S. annually. However, annual statistics are not the whole story. A 6 percent annual rate year after year produces a cumulative rate of nonpromotion greater than 50 percent. Even allowing for students who repeat more than one grade, we estimate that by 9th grade approximately half of all students in the U.S. have flunked at least one grade (or are no longer in school). This means that, contrary to public perceptions, current grade failure rates are as high as they were in the 19th century, before the days of social promouon.

Does repeating a grade improve student achievement? In a recent meta-analysis of research, Holmes (1989) located 63 controlled studies where retained students were followed up and compared to equally poor-achieving students who went directly on to the next grade. Fifty-four studies showed overall negative effects from retention, even on measures of academic achievement. This means that when retained children went on to the next grade they actually performed more poorly on average than if they had gone on without repeating. Suppose, for example, that retained and control groups both started out at the 10th percentile on standardized achievement tests at the end of 1st grade. The retained group was made to repeat 1st grade while the control group was promoted to 2nd grade. Two years later when the retained children completed 2nd grade, they might be (on average) at the 20th percentile. However, the control children, who started out equally deficient, would finish 2nd grade achieving ahead of their retained counterparts by 0.31 standard deviation units, or at roughly the 30th percentile on average.

When Holmes selected only the 25 studies with the greatest degree of statistical control, the negative effect of

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retention was again confirmed. In the 9 positive studies (out of 63), the apparent benefit of retention tended to diminish over time so that differences in performance between retained and control children disappeared in later grades.

Does nonpromotion prevent school dropouts? In a typical end-of-year news story, *USA Today* (Johnson 1988) reported that one-quarter of the 1st graders in a Mississippi community would be held back because they "can't read at a 1st-grade level." Consistent with the view that retention will repair deficient skills and improve students' life chances, the principal explained her decision: "In years past, those students would have been promoted to 2nd grade. Then they might have dropped out in five, six, or seven years."

Researchers of the dropout phenomenon have consistently found a significant relationship between grade retention and dropping out—in the opposite direction, however, from the one imagined by the Mississippi principal. Dropouts are five times more likely to have repeated a grade than are high school graduates. Students who repeat two grades have a probability of dropping out of nearly 100 percent (Association of California Urban School Districts 1985). In the past, these findings were ignored because poor achievement could be the explanation for both grade retention and dropping out. More recently, Grissom and Shepard (1989) conducted three large-scale studies, involving from 20,000 to 80,000 students each. They examined the retention-dropout relation after controlling for achievement and found that with equally poor achievement (and controlling for other background characteristics associated with dropping out), students who repeated a year were 20 to 30 percent more likely to drop out of school. For example, in Austin, Texas, African-American males with below average achievement have a 45 percent chance of dropping out of school; but African-American males with identical achievement scores who have repeated a year of school have a 75 percent chance of leaving school before graduation. A substantially increased risk for dropping out after repeating a grade was found even in a large affluent suburban school district with only a 4 percent dropout rate.

What are the emotional effects of retention? In a much-quoted study of childhood stressors by Yamamoto (1980), children rated the prospect of repeating a grade as more stressful than "wetting in class" or being caught stealing. Going blind or losing a parent were the only two life events that children said would be more stressful than being retained. The negative connotations of being held back pervade the American school culture. When Byrnes (1989) interviewed children and used euphemisms to refer to spending two years in the same grade, even 1st graders said, "Oh, you mean flunking." Eighty-seven percent of the children interviewed said that being retained made them feel "sad," "bad," "upset," or "embarrassed." Only 6 percent of retained children gave positive answers about how retention made them feel, like, "you learn more," or "it lets you catch up." Interview transcripts from both high-achieving students and retained students revealed a widely shared perception that retention is a necessary punishment for being bad in class or failing to learn.

Holmes' (1989) synthesis of controlled studies included nearly 50 studies with some social or emotional outcome measures. On average, Holmes found that retained students do more poorly than matched controls on follow-up measures of social adjustment, attitudes toward school, behavioral outcomes, and attendance.

The above research findings indicate, then, that contrary to popular belief, repeating a grade actually worsens achievement levels in subsequent years. The evidence contradicts commonsense reasoning that retention will reduce school dropout rates; it seems more likely that school policies meant to increase the number of grade retentions will exacerbate dropout rates. The negative social-emotional consequences of repeating represents the only area where conventional wisdom is consistent with research findings: kids have always hated being retained, and the studies bear that out.

Reconciling Research and Practice

Policies of grade retention persist in the face of negative evidence because teachers and parents cannot conduct controlled experiments. Without controlled comparisons, retention looks as if it works, especially if you believe that it does. Consider how the performance of individual retained and control children is interpreted by teachers. A control child does very poorly academically, is considered for retention, but is socially promoted. Consistent with the 30th percentile figure quoted from the Holmes (1989) study above, the control child ends up in the bottom half of the class, still struggling. Teachers then say, "If only we had retained him, his performance would have improved." Meanwhile, a comparable child does repeat, shows improvement during the repeat year on some skills, but in the next grade does even more poorly than the control child. Believing that retention helps, however, and without being able to see the controlled comparison, teachers accept any improvement during the repeat year itself as proof that retention works, and about poor performance in the next grade they say, "He would have done even more poorly without the extra year," or "At least we tried."

Schools are also under considerable political pressure to maintain acceptably high levels of grade retention as proof of high standards. Public belief in the efficacy of retention creates a powerful mandate: Flunk poor-achieving students for their own good as well as society's good. Without a simple way to explain to the public that at-risk students are more likely to learn and stay in school if not retained, schools may sacrifice the best interests of individual children to appease popular demands.

What alternatives are there to retention? There are numerous ways to provide extra instructional help focussed on a student's specific learning needs within the context of normal-grade promotion. Remedial help, before- and after-school programs, summer school, instructional aides to work with target children in the regular classroom, and no-cost peer tutoring are all more effective than reten-

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tion. Unlike retention, each of these solutions has a research base showing positive achievement gains for participating children over controls. Cross-age peer tutoring, for example, where an average 5th grade student might tutor a 2nd grader who is behind in math, shows learning gains for both the target students and the tutors (Hartley 1977).

One of the fears about social promotion is that teachers will pass on deficient students endlessly as if no one had noticed their problem. Rather than ban retention but do nothing else, creative groups of teachers in a few schools have developed staffing teams (of regular teachers) to work out plans with the next-grade receiving teachers about how to address the learning difficulties for students who otherwise would have been retention candidates. Similarly, some schools "place" poorly performing students in the next grade with a formally agreed upon Individualized Educational Plan (IEP), akin to the special education model of intervention. The decision to allow a deficient student to advance to the next grade with a plan for special help is analogous to prevalent school policies for gifted students. Instead of double promoting academically gifted students, schools keep them in their normal grade and provide them with enriched instruction. There are two reasons enrichment is preferred over skipping grades. First, normal grade placement is better socially for academically able students. Second, these able children are not equally advanced in every subject, and the amount they are ahead does not come in convenient nine-month units. Parallel arguments can be used to explain why retention does not improve achievement but promotion plus remediation does. Finally, there is reason to believe that struggling students need a more inspired and engaging curriculum, one that involves them in solving meaningful problems, rather than repetitive, by-rote drills on basic skills. Outmoded learning theories (e.g., Thorndike's [1972] S-R bonds and behaviorism's programmed instruction [Mager 1962]) require children to master component skills before they are allowed to go on to comprehension and problem solving; this theory consigns slow learners to school work that is not only boring but devoid of any connection to the kinds of problems they encounter in the real world.

The second wave of educational reform, exemplified by curricular changes in California and the new standards of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, is based on more current learning theory from cognitive and constructivist psychology (Resnick 1987, Wertsch 1985), which holds that skills cannot be learned effectively nor applied to new problems unless the skills are learned in context. For example, students who are given lots and lots of problems to solve about how much tile to buy to floor a room with irregular dimensions and how much paint to buy are more likely to be better at both multiplication facts and problem solving than students who must memorize all

Highlights of Research on Grade Retention

A synthesis of the research on grade retention shows that:

- Grade failure rates are as high as they were in the 19th century, before the days of social promotion: Although annual statistics show only about a 6 percent annual rate for retention, year after year that produces a cumulative rate of nonpromotion greater than 50 percent. By 9th grade approximately half of all students in the U.S. have flunked at least one grade (or are no longer in school).
- Retained children actually perform more poorly on average when they go on to the next grade then if they had been promoted without repeating a grade.
- Dropouts are five times more likely to have repeated a grade than are high school graduates. Students who repeat two grades have a probability of dropping out of nearly 100 percent.
- Children in Yamamoto's (1980) study of childhood stressors rated the prospect of repeating a grade as more stressful than "wetting in class" or being caught stealing. The only two life events they felt would be more stressful than being retained were going blind or losing a parent. Both high-achieving and retained students interviewed by Byrnes (1989) viewed retention as a necessary punishment for being bad in class or failing to learn.
- There are many alternatives to retention that are more effective in helping low achievers. These include remedial help, before- and after-school programs, summer school, instructional aides to work with target children in the regular classroom, and no-cost peer tutoring. Groups of teachers in some schools have developed staffing teams to work out plans with the next-grade receiving teachers about how to address the learning difficulties for students who otherwise would have been retention candidates. Some schools "place" poor performing students in the next grade with a formally agreed upon Individualized Educational Plan (IEP), akin to the special education model of intervention.
- The annual cost to school districts of retaining 2.4 million students per year is nearly $10 billion. Summer school costs only approximately $1,300 per student compared to $4,051 for a repeated grade. At a wage of $6 an hour for an aide, it would take the savings from only 1.6 retained students to have an extra adult in every classroom full time to give extra attention to low achieving students.

Remedial help, before- and after-school programs, summer school, instructional aides to work with target children in the regular classroom, and no-cost peer tutoring are all more effective than retention.

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Children rated the prospect of repeating a grade as more stressful than "wetting in class" or being caught stealing.

their multiplication tables before confronting even one such problem.

How much does retention cost? Can the dollars saved by not retaining students be reallocated to more effective alternatives? Based on an annual retention rate of 6 percent and a per pupil cost of $4,051 (U.S. Department of Education, Center for Education Statistics), we estimated that U.S. school districts spend nearly $10 billion a year to pay for the extra year of schooling necessitated by retaining 2.4 million students (see study cited in author's note at end of article).

Ten billion dollars would go a long way to pay for remedial programs, summer school, classroom aides, or reduced class size to help at-risk students learn. For example, summer school costs only approximately $1,300 per student compared to $4,051 for a repeated grade. Even special education help for a learning disabled child costs on average only $1,600 (half of which is spent on testing and staffing instead of instruction). At a wage of $6 an hour for an aide, it would take the savings from only 1.6 retained students to have an extra adult in every classroom full time.

Ironically, however, retention does not appear as a line item in any educational budget. No jurisdiction appears to bear the cost of the extra year. Because most students do not stay in the same district for 13 years of school, it does not matter to local districts that some students take 14 years. If a student stays in a district only 4 years, then the cost of grades 1–2–3–4 is the same as grades 1–2–3–3. Even states are not aware that they are paying for an extra year. Because the real cost of retention is never explicitly acknowledged, local educators find it difficult to redirect savings from students not retained to more effective instructional programs.

The Futility of Flunking

Researchers have not been able to tell why retention doesn't work as intended. Some speculate that the negative emotional effects of repeating harm subsequent learning. Others suggest that going through the same material again is a crude and ineffec-

No Benefits from Kindergarten Retention

The decade of the 1980s saw a dramatic rise in the number of children asked to repeat kindergarten. In districts with special programs for "unready" kindergartners, as many as 50 percent were held back (California Department of Education 1988). An extra year before 1st grade is now offered in a variety of different forms: transition classrooms before 1st grade, developmental kindergarten before kindergarten, and straight repeating of kindergarten. According to its advocates, kindergarten retention, because it is intended to prevent school failure caused by immaturity, is different from retention in later grades.

Controlled studies do not support the benefits claimed for extra-year programs, however, and negative side effects occur just as they do for retention in later grades. In a review of 16 controlled studies on the effects of extra-year programs, the predominant finding is one of no difference (Shepard 1989). For example, when researchers followed extra-year children to the end of 1st grade or as far as 5th grade and compared their performance to unready children whose parents refused the extra year, the extra-year children performed no better academically despite being a year older for their grade. The conclusion of "no benefit" holds true even for studies where children were selected on the basis of immaturity rather than for academic risk, and even where a special transition curriculum was offered rather than repeating regular kindergarten.

Although the majority of teachers believe that retention in kindergarten does not carry a social stigma "if handled properly," extra-year children are more likely to have lower self-concepts and poorer attitudes toward school compared to controls (Shepard 1989). Parent interviews reveal both short-term and long-term distress associated with the retention decision such as teasing by peers, tears because friends are going on, and references years later like, "If I had only been able . . . , I would be in 3rd grade now." (Shepard and Smith 1989b).

Various analysts have suggested that kindergarten retention is an educational fad, gaining popularity because of the apparent need to remove unready children from increasingly narrow academic demands in kindergarten and 1st grade. Long periods of seat work, worksheets, and "staying in the lines" are required of children, inconsistent with the normal development of 5- and 6-year-olds. Ironically, retention and holding children out of school, intended to protect them from inappropriate expectations, actually contribute to the escalation of demands, thereby placing more and more children at risk. As kindergartens become populated with 6-year-olds who have had 3 years of preschool, teachers find it difficult to teach to the normal 5-year-olds in the class. The problem can only be solved with more developmentally appropriate curriculum in the early grades and reform of harmful instructional practices, something that many national associations have called for, including the National Association for the Education of Young Children, the National Association of State Boards of Education, the Association for Childhood Education International, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the International Reading Association, the National Association of Elementary School Principals, and the National Council of Teachers of English. Until this problem of kindergarten retention is addressed on a national scale, educators must deal with its consequences—which will negatively affect the quality of education at every level of schooling.

—Lorrie A. Shepard and Mary Lee Smith

tive way to individualize instruction since a child may be more than one year behind in some subjects and only a few months behind in others. Because retention itself is considered to be the treatment, there is usually no additional effort to correct the poor quality of teaching and learning that occurred the first time through. In other words, the child may have failed to achieve grade-level standards because the programs or teachers he had were ineffective. Merely repeating the same curriculum or instruction is not likely to fix the problem. If extra money exists to support remediation along with retention, then educators should ask why students can't receive the extra help in the context of their normal grade placement.

The public and many educators find it difficult to give up on retention. To do so seems to mean accepting or condoning shamefully deficient skills for many high school graduates. It is easier for the public to credit research findings that retention harms self-esteem and increases the likelihood of dropping out than to believe the most critical finding—that retention worsens rather than improves the level of student achievement in years following the repeat year. Only with this fact firmly in mind, verified in over 50 controlled studies, does it make sense to subscribe to remediation and other within-grade instructional efforts which have modest but positive evidence of success. Perhaps the futility of flunking students to make them learn would be more obvious if it were recognized that statistically, social promotion has been dead for at least 10 years (i.e., cumulative retention rates are very high). Today's graduates and dropouts are emerging from a system that has imposed fierce non-promotion rates, flunking between 30 and 50 percent of all entering students at least once in their school careers. Strict promotion standards have been enforced for a decade and, as would have been predictable from the retention research findings on achievement, have not appreciably improved the performance of current graduates. Ultimately, hopes for more dramatic improvements in student learning

U.S. school districts spend nearly $10 billion a year to pay for the extra year of schooling necessitated by retaining 2.4 million students.

(than can be expected from promotion plus remediation) will only come from thoroughgoing school changes—more support and opportunities for teachers to work together in addressing the problems of hard-to-teach children (Martin 1988), and curricular reforms designed to engage all children in meaningful learning tasks that provide both the context and the purpose for acquiring basic skills (Resnick 1987). □

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ERIC CLEARINGHOUSE ON LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS
CENTER FOR APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Digest

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Collaboration in Schools Serving Students with Limited English Proficiency and Other Special Needs

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This Digest is based on a monograph by Sandra H. Fradd in the *Language in Education* series to be published in the Spring of 1993. Contact ERIC/CLL for additional information.

Learning to work cooperatively and collaboratively with others to address the needs of specific students is not easy. Few educators have training in this area. Although collaborative cross-disciplinary programs are beginning to appear in schools, few school personnel have had training in applying multicultural concepts to addressing the needs of learners with disabilities and limited proficiency in English.

Collaboration across disciplines and grade levels cannot occur without an organizational structure that promotes interaction and communication. The local school level is the arena where collaboration can have an immediate impact on students. Although there is a strong movement toward collaboration, there are still many obstacles to be overcome in assisting special needs students with limited proficiency in English. This digest will discuss the development of collaboration at the school level to meet the needs of these students.

Barriers to Collaboration

Some barriers to collaboration have grown out of federal and state funding policies and practices. Territorial and political perceptions, as well as legal realities like weighted funding categories and requirements for program participation, stand in the way of promoting effective integrated programs. While the services to be provided through special programs were designed to assist students, supplemental and resource programs have had the effect of fragmenting instruction and promoting competition among funding recipients.

Changing Perceptions of Collaboration

Changes in educators' orientation toward collaboration have grown out of changes in the ways that effective instruction and school organization are perceived. The evolution of indicators for effective schools has occurred through research and practice founded on a belief in the importance of success for all students, not just for those who are academically talented (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989). An important aspect of the emergence of collaboration is the shift from a perception of the principal and teachers as solely responsible for educational outcomes to the perception of education as a process that includes teachers, parents, and students throughout (Stedman, 1987). The evaluation of the ways that schools involve the people who work and learn there continues as the press for multicultural equity and equality becomes more widespread and insistent.

Promoting Collaboration

Teachers, parents, and community members can encourage collaboration through informal as well as more formal interactions. Volunteering to assist others and sharing perspectives are means of promoting collaboration. Teachers and parents can influence administrators and policy makers by asking the kinds of questions that focus on process as well as on results; however, schoolwide collaboration and program integration are difficult without administrative support (Heron & Harris, 1987). Effective collaboration models exist (see, e.g., Allington & Broikou, 1988), but few of these models include the cultural and linguistic diversity that often complicate the collaborative process (Baca & Cervantes, 1989; Correa, 1989).

Collaboration Among Teachers

Collaboration can occur through informal interpersonal interaction and through structured formal interactions. Both are important and can provide positive outcomes. But collaboration across multicultural populations poses particular problems. At the informal level, collaborators gravitate toward those with whom they feel comfortable and compatible—often people with similar values and perspectives. However, this tendency to select persons with similar ideas and cultural backgrounds usually promotes the status quo. When people with different values enter the collaborative process, their ideas may be misunderstood and rejected unless the collaborators are prepared to deal with different ways of thinking and communicating (Fradd, 1991; in press).

One of the first steps in initiating formal collaboration across disciplines is the identification of the specific areas of interest, need, or expertise in each discipline that affect instruction. Each educator has strengths and limitations. For example, few regular education teachers are able to communicate in languages other than English; special education personnel may fail to comprehend the complexities of working with culturally diverse students and families; bilingual educators may lack an understanding of regular or special education requirements or curricula.

On the other hand, bilingual and ESOL teachers usually know about the development of students' English skills and how particular students compare with others of the same age from the same language background. They know how to integrate language development information with subject matter instruction and how to reduce the language demands of the task while maintaining a focus on the content of the lesson. These teachers usually are in close contact with parents, siblings, and the ethnic communities. They may be able to serve as cultural informants to help teachers and administrators address cultural as well as subject matter requirements of the students (Fradd & Weismantel, 1989).

Regular classroom teachers can compare the performance of individual special needs students with that of mainstream students. They observe the students interacting with peers and know the students with whom the target students prefer to interact. These teachers also notice the types of activities that motivate students and are aware of the ways in which particular students approach or avoid tasks (Baca & Cervantes, 1989).

Special education teachers are experienced at developing effective behavior management programs, breaking the learning process into specific steps, and instructing students in useful strategies for ap-

proaching and mastering academic content. They observe behaviors and record and monitor learning. These facts can be useful in developing effective plans and programs.

Unfortunately, teachers are often unaware of the types of information available from their potential collaborators; thus they may not ask each other for specific information or request advice in developing instructional plans. In an informal collaborative setting, contributions from those of varying backgrounds may be neglected. The establishment of formal collaborative procedures can facilitate the exchange of information and ideas among different teachers and help foster the development of a collaborative and cooperative atmosphere that may lead to informal collaboration in the future.

Cooperative Planning

Strategies have been developed for establishing and maintaining collaboration to assist LEP students with mild disabilities. One such strategy is referred to as "cooperative planning" (Hudson & Fradd, 1990). An important feature of this strategy is that none of the personnel involved is recognized as more of an authority than the others. All are considered equals within their areas of expertise and all have areas in which they can develop new skills for working with LEP students. The steps in cooperative planning listed below can be implemented through formal planned procedures or through informal interactions among colleagues.

- Establish meeting times
- Establish and maintain rapport
- Discuss demands of each instructional setting
- Target the students
- Specify and summarize data
- Discuss student information
- Determine discrepancies between student skills and teacher expectations
- Plan instruction intervention and monitoring system
- Implement the plan and follow up as needed

Collaborative skills can be developed by meeting regularly to discuss student needs and to monitor student progress. This process can also allow educators to determine the specific interventions that lead toward success (Damico & Nye, 1991).

Collaboration with Parents

Once teachers have begun successful cooperation among themselves, they may also want to involve the students' families. The school experience for LEP students, and probably for many others, is likely to be viewed from different perspectives by the many people involved—the most extreme differences usually occurring between family members and school personnel (Casanova, 1990). Recognition of these potential differences was acknowledged in federal legislation that requires that parents be included in the planning process when students are placed in special education programs (Casanova, 1990). Without information from the parents, many assumptions may be made about the students that do not reflect the parents' perspective. Parents can provide important information about the student's status and behavior in the family and in the community, as well as information about family and community norms.

In addition to parent programs that promote a general understanding of the school system, specific programs for fostering understanding and collaboration between families and the school can be developed (FIRST, 1991). Means of assessing the family's present circumstances in order to provide understanding and support include obtaining information on the family's resources, their interactional styles, and the ways family members participate in the community (Correa, 1989). Learning about the family's experiences prior to and since their arrival in the United States, their religious beliefs and practices, parenting practices, and roles ascribed to family members and close friends can also help the school plan collaborative programs and activities with family members (Correa, 1989).

Involving family members in the teaching process can benefit students, families, and the school community in general. Interaction between families and schools can enhance understanding of school practices and school culture in addition to promoting learning activities in the home. Instructional programs using the home language as well as English provide the greatest opportunities for family participation as this type of collaboration is fostered through direct communication between the home and school in the language that is most comfortable for the family members. A number of books and programs are available for encouraging parent involvement in bilingual literacy development (see, e.g., Saunders, 1986). Suggestions for involving parents in school programs include the following:

- cultural events and activities that involve students and families;
- displays of student art and other products that families can enjoy;
- written and oral communication in the language of the home;
- designated school personnel from whom families can obtain information about school events, student achievement, and concerns;
- trained interpreters and translators to serve as informants and communicators in working with families and school personnel;
- handbooks and written forms available in the languages of the families represented in the school; and
- trained personnel to discuss student performance and school culture with families.

Conclusion

In an era of decreasing resources and rapidly increasing student diversity, collaboration is an essential strategy for enhancing resource utilization and program cost effectiveness. Collaboration can also provide the means to meet the educational needs of many students in mainstream and special education settings. As administrators, teachers, and parents learn to collaborate, they increase learning opportunities for themselves and for their children.

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ERIC Digest

ESL Teacher Education

Prepared by Carol Kreidler

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The Growing Profession

Although the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) is a relatively young profession, it is, in reality, quite an old activity. When the Angles and Saxons invaded Britain some 1500 years ago, the two tribes found it easier to teach their own language (which has evolved into present-day English) to the conquered Britons than to learn the Britons' tongue.

Until the time of World War II the teaching of English was rather hit or miss in the United States. Most immigrants found the lack of ability to speak English an occupational as well as a social and psychological handicap. Instruction in English for adult immigrants was provided in Americanization schools for those who wished to enroll, while public school children were required to do their studies in English with no extra help. There was no concentrated effort to aid non-English speakers.

In 1940, the first teachers of English as a foreign language were enrolled at the University of Michigan in a training program that was based on structural or descriptive linguistics. At about the same time in the Army Language School, the analysis of a variety of languages and their contrasts with the English language added to the expansion of the evolving field of linguistics. These developments in the study of languages, including the English language, gave impetus to the inauguration of programs in linguistics at colleges and universities. General linguistics programs often included classes or areas of concentration in applied linguistics which, at that time, were mainly programs of preparation for teaching English to speakers of other languages.

The Growing Number of Teacher Preparation Programs

In 1964 the National Defense Education Act authorized summer institutes to provide training for teachers of English as a second language (ESL), and the number of university programs in ESL grew. Forty-six programs in 36 institutions were described in a 1972 directory of TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) preparation programs; the 1986 edition of the directory lists 196 programs offered at 143 institutions.

The Growth of Certification

A milestone in professionalization occurred in 1966 with the founding of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), a professional organization for those concerned with the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. TESOL started with 337 members; today the organization numbers more than 11,000.

TESOL, in an attempt to address concerns of educators, held a conference (1970) to develop guidelines for certification and preparation of ESL teachers in the United States. These guidelines, which are in three parts, define the role of an ESL teacher in an American school, describe the personal qualities and professional competencies the teacher should possess, and describe the features of a professional preparation program designed to fulfill those competencies. They have been used extensively by the states in setting their requirements for certification.

From 1976 to 1980 the number of states offering some kind of certification in ESL increased almost five-fold, from 4 to 19. At present, 33 states and the District of Columbia have certification or endorsement and two states have pending certification legislation.

Special Preparation for ESL

It has been claimed that an English-speaking child has the ability to use most of the sounds and grammatical forms in a communicative context by the beginning of school. The content of training programs must, therefore, be different for those who will teach anyone who does not already know these forms. The teacher of ESL must know more than simply how to speak the language. Studies in English linguistics, anthropology, psy-

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chology, and sociology, as well as in education, form the special areas of preparation for the ESL teacher.

Special Programs for ESL

Traditionally, the study of linguistics has been a graduate endeavor; likewise, programs for preparing teachers of ESL have usually been offered at the graduate level. Out of the 46 teacher preparation programs listed in the 1972 directory mentioned earlier, only five were at the bachelor's degree level, while 33 were at the master's level. The 1986 version of the directory lists 25 programs at the bachelor's level and 120 at the master's level. Professional preparation programs at one or both of these levels are in place for most states at state universities and/or private institutions.

The fact that most of the programs are graduate programs also accounts for the number of states that have endorsements for ESL rather than full certification since teachers often get their additional training in ESL adding endorsements to previous basic certification. Many school systems provide inservice training in ESL; moreover, the TESOL organization, through its affiliates and their conferences which offer Continuing Education Units, has taken the responsibility for a great deal of inservice ESL teacher education.

Some Future Directions

Since the 1970s, a change in teaching methodology that has pervaded the teaching of ESL is the change from a teacher–centered classroom to a student– or learner-centered classroom. In the learner–centered classroom the teacher becomes a facilitator of learning, and it is important that students in teacher preparation courses are taught in a manner that reflects this approach to learning.

Teacher preparation programs are presently being challenged to produce teachers who understand the theory behind the methodologies. Freeman (1987) points out that the teacher trainer's first task is to find out how people learn to teach, to understand the processes through which individuals learn to be language teachers. Only then can we concentrate our efforts on improving the quality of language teacher education.

But teachers of ESL are, above all, teachers. New directions in ESL preparation parallel new directions in the preparation of all teachers. In education today there is discussion regarding the amount of time prospective teachers spend learning how to teach rather than learning the content of what they will teach. Prospective teachers of ESL are in this way like those of other fields. For years the emphasis has been on the learner in the classroom; now we are beginning to see more emphasis on the teacher. After all, the teacher is a crucial determiner of success in the classroom.

Resources

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is a membership organization that publishes a bimonthly newsletter, a quarterly journal, and other publications. In addition to the previously mentioned Guidelines for Certification, the TESOL organization has also published standards for professional preparation programs. The address for TESOL is Suite 205, 1118 22nd St. NW, Washington, DC 20037.

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